



THE
AMERICAN MUSEUM,
OR, UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE,

For JULY, 1792.

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P R I C E O F S T O C K S.

Philadelphia, July 31, 1792.

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|--|
| 6 Per cents, 21s. 4d. |
| Deferred 6 per cents. 12s. |
| Three per cents. 12s. 6d. |
| Final settlements, 20s. |
| Indents, 12s. 4d. |
| Full shares bank of U. S. 45 per cent premium, |
| Three-quarter shares, 55, |
| Bank of N. A. 30. |

1792.]

(7)

Meteorological observations made at Philadelphia, in June, 1792.

| Days. | Barometer. | | | Thermom. | | Anemometer Prevailing wind. | Weather. |
|------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------|
| | English foot. | | at 2 P.M. | F. r. | 2 P.M. | | |
| | In. $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{16}$ | In. $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{16}$ | | D $\frac{1}{10}$ | D $\frac{1}{10}$ | | |
| 1 | 30 | 14 | 30 1 3 | 68 | 90 5 | Variable, | overcast, wind. |
| 2 | 30 | 6 | 29 10 6 | 59 | 73 6 | idem, | rainy, |
| 3 | 29 10 13 | 30 | | 65 7 | 82 6 | E | overcast, |
| 4 | 30 1 13 | 30 2 | | 63 5 | 66 2 | E | overcast, rainy, |
| 5 | 30 1 10 | 29 11 5 | | 59 | 89 | S | rainy, thunder, |
| 6 | 29 11 | 29 9 13 | | 65 7 | 77 | Variable | idem, idem, |
| 7 | 29 8 9 | 29 9 3 | | 59 | 72 5 | NE | rainy, |
| 8 | 29 11 6 | 29 11 11 | | 51 | 60 | NE | overcast, rainy, |
| 9 | 29 11 9 | 30 12 | | 54 5 | 70 2 | NE | cloudy, windy, |
| 10 | 29 11 2 | 29 10 6 | | 52 2 | 53 | NE | heavy rains, |
| 11 | 29 10 6 | 29 10 8 | | 48 6 | 54 3 | NE | idem, h. winds, |
| 12 | 29 11 14 | 30 12 | | 52 2 | 67 5 | ENE | cloudy, windy, |
| 13 | 30 1 6 | 30 1 1 | | 53 4 | 71 4 | ENE | fair, |
| 14 | 30 1 8 | 30 1 2 | | 53 4 | 78 8 | ENE | foggy, fair, |
| 15 | 30 1 | 30 3 | | 53 4 | 84 9 | ENE | fair, |
| 16 | 30 11 | 30 2 | | 56 7 | 84 9 | ESE | idem, |
| 17 | 30 4 | 30 4 | | 61 2 | 87 8 | WSW | idem, foggy, |
| 18 | 30 13 | 30 1 | | 63 | 90 5 | WSW | idem, |
| 19 | 30 1 12 | 30 1 | | 62 | 88 9 | SW | idem, |
| 20 | 30 2 | 29 11 7 | | 63 5 | 88 7 | WSW | idem, |
| 21 | 29 9 7 | 29 8 5 | | 68 | 93 6 | ENE | thunder, rain, |
| 22 | 29 9 9 | 29 8 7 | | 68 | 87 8 | Variable, | overcast, |
| 23 | 29 7 10 | 29 7 5 | | 69 6 | 69 6 | idem, | rainy, |
| 24 | 29 11 5 | 30 4 | | 65 7 | 79 2 | idem, | fair, |
| 25 | 30 1 7 | 30 1 5 | | 59 | 74 7 | SE.SSW | rainy, |
| 26 | 30 1 7 | 30 1 2 | | 63 5 | 82 3 | NW | fair, |
| 27 | 30 12 | 29 11 14 | | 65 7 | 89 4 | WSW | idem, |
| 28 | 29 11 9 | 29 11 | | 64 8 | 90 | W | idem. |
| 29 | 29 10 | 29 9 | | 70 2 | 91 6 | SW | overcast, light. |
| 30 | 29 9 14 | 29 11 | | 65 7 | 87 | W | fair, |
| Barometer. | | | Thermometer. | | Wind and | | |
| RESULT. | 4th gr. elevat. | 30 2 | 21ft. gr. deg. heat | 93 6 | weather. | | |
| | 23d least elevat. | 29 7 5 | 11th least deg. | 48 6 | fair, rainy, | | |
| | Variation, | 6 11 | Variation, | 45 | and wet. | | |
| | Mean elevation, | 29 11 9 | Mean deg. heat, | 70 | NE.WSW | | |

FOR THE AMERICAN MUSEUM.

Reflexions on the state of the union.

NUMBER IV.

Concerning the banks established in the united States.

THESE valuable institutions were unknown to us before the revolution, being added to the political economy in the latter part of the war. The paper emissions in the times of the provinces;

had yielded some of the advantages of bank notes, though with less safety to those who received them. But the degree in which they were unavoidably resorted to, in the course of the war, had completely destroyed the utility of paper money in 1781. The state of public credit, and indeed of the public affairs in general, as well as the exigencies of the cultivators, merchants, and manufacturers, required an efficient substitute for an instrument of negotiation and dealing, of so great compass. The scheme of a bank presented itself in the manner, which is universally known, as the most probable mean of accommodating the general necessities, political, agricultural, and commercial. The promises, which the plan made, were abundantly fulfilled: and at the same time a standard of public conduct and action in regard to the rights of property, was unobservedly erected, at a moment when the recent course of events had rendered it very desirable, as well from political as moral considerations. It has been found, accordingly, that the laws which concern property, in the places where banks have been established, have quickly acquired a stability, if they were good, and have meliorated, if they were before exceptionable, notwithstanding any supposed or real errors in the plans or administration of the institutions.

In reflecting upon these establishments, one cannot but call to mind a suggestion, which frequently occurs, that too large a portion of the capital of the united states, has been applied to them. Few pecuniary operations are of as much importance. In estimating the extent to which we might have gone with prudence, an examination of the state of that business in a successful and at the same time the best known scene of trade in Europe, may be of some use. In the city of London, the bank of *England* (exclusively of that of *Scotland*) has operated with a capital of more than fifty millions of dollars about forty-six years. The population of *England*, on a medium, during that term, has been less than double that of the united states at present; yet the capital of its bank has been above five times the capital of our national bank, and near five times the amount of all the subscriptions which are yet paid into all the banks in the united states. There are, moreover, a great number of private banks in the same city, probably not less than sixty in number, some of which have more capital stock, than any bank in this country, except that of the united states. The aggregate amount of their capitals is probably equal to that of the bank of *England*. Besides these, there are very many considerable private banks scattered through the kingdom. In addition to these, there are the public and the private banks of *Scotland*. If the banks of *England* and *Scotland*, public and private, out of London, be equal to the private banks of London alone, then the capital of those institutions in Great Britain, will be 150,000,000 dollars, or above fourteen times as many dollars as there are persons in that kingdom, though the whole of the stocks of the banks in the united states, which are paid in, are not equal to three times the number of their inhabitants. Again. If the banks of Great Britain be measured by the exports of that island, it will be found, that the latter, at their highest value (ninety millions of dollars) are only three fifths of their aggregate bank capital, and that our exports, at 18,250,000 dollars, are above two thirds more than all our bank capital, which

is actually paid in. Taking the British imports at 80,000,000 of dollars, and those of the united states at 24,000,000, the comparison will be still more in favour of the discretion, which has been observed in the united states. But a very important measure of these institutions yet remains to be applied, by which prudent men will be disposed to test the subject—the *quantity of specie*. The bank capital of Great Britain being, as above stated, about 150 millions of dollars, and the quantum of specie being never estimated at more than 22,000,000l. sterling, or 97,700,000 dollars, the aggregate bank capitals of the united states, as now paid in (ten and one half millions of dollars) would be as prudently, and solidly founded on a quantity of specie a little less than seven millions of dollars. Although it would be impossible to ascertain the precise amount of the specie of the united states, estimates carefully made, appear to warrant a belief, that it is equal to that sum. But while examinations like these seem to abate and even entirely to destroy the apprehension, that we may have pursued the business of banking to the injury of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, some circumstances of a prudential nature are not to be overlooked. When forming these establishments, we may commit errors, perhaps, in carrying into one scene too great a proportion of the capital appropriated to their creation. Hence the sound policy of subtracting from the mass of the bank of the united states, to establish branches at New-York, Boston, Baltimore, Charleston, and (as is intended) in Virginia, ministering to the convenience, the necessities, and the interests of government, the planter, the farmer, the merchant, the navigator, the fisherman, the shipbuilder, the manufacturer and the mechanic, in six several and variant scenes, instead of accumulating in one great mass, a superabundant capital—a political magnet attracting, through devious courses, and attaching all things to its own vicinity.

It is possible to err, too, in the disposition of banking establishments, by superadding to those which already accommodate a particular scene, rather than introducing the new institutions into places hitherto without them. The united states contain five or six great local subdivisions of trade, resulting principally from the imperious dictates of *the nature of things*. In most of those great spheres, there is more than one considerable and flourishing trading town, though there is in each, one which has an acknowledged pre-eminence. When a reasonable portion of bank capital has been introduced into one of these commercial *metropoles*, the establishment of a new bank would seem to be most expedient in the trading town of the next degree of consideration. It is true, that so far as the operation is an employment, or application of the property of individuals, it must be left, (within the laws) to their own will; but as the act of incorporation places the subject within the power of the legislatures, and within the sphere of their cares and duties, so it is highly important that these institutions be modified in their original formation, upon principles of distributive justice, in regard to the reasonable accommodation of the marts of commerce within their sphere of legislation, and of all the landed citizens, who resort to them for the sales of their surplus produce, or the purchase of their supplies.

A precious consequence has resulted from the distribution of banks through different parts of the united states. Like all great

objects, these institutions, while operating very beneficially in regard to the business of a country, are liable to be rendered instrumental to local party views. Being committed, as in the united states, to ten several boards of directors, selected for the service on account of their property, integrity, talents, and attention to business, and whose primary duties are the legal, discreet, and beneficial execution of their trust, it is not probable, nor, indeed, is it in their power, to deviate from their proper walk, into the ground of political combination and intrigue.

A circumstance observable in the bank of the united states, will not fail to attract the attention of cautious men. The portion of public debt, which enters into the composition of their stock, is the particular contemplated. In this respect, the bank of England, and the bank of Ireland (which are among the best accredited of those institutions in Europe) exceed that of the united states in the proportion of one third. It is very favourable to our institution, that the national debt, and ordinary and extraordinary expenses of both Great Britain and Ireland are much greater in proportion to wealth and numbers, than those of the united states, and that our government is not less free from error, nor more likely to be disturbed than theirs. It cannot, therefore, be more unsafe to confide in our institution, which contains three fourths, than in theirs which is wholly composed of public debt. It is, moreover, true, and worthy of observation, that most of the other banks in the united states (and particularly the three largest) have voluntarily and by their own operations placed considerable portions of their stock upon the credit of the united states, by purchasing largely of the public debt, and by giving at this time extensive credits founded upon its security. The market value of the public debt, which is generally greater in specie than its nominal amount, renders that part of the bank stock, which is composed of it, intrinsically more valuable than that which is in coin.

Concerning the national industry.

An enquiry into the knowledge or skill, assiduity, economy, or frugality, and good management with which the several descriptions of citizens in the united states pursue their employments, has never been made. The subject is copious, and would require much previous enquiry and detail. It is not intended, therefore, in this place to attempt a development of it: yet it may be serviceable to bestow upon it a few brief reflexions. The learned professions will not be brought into view, as they are not strictly of the nature of the object contemplated. The planters, the farmers, the merchants, the navigators, the fishermen, the shipbuilders, the manufacturers and the mechanics, with the persons immediately employed by them, are all which are conceived to be comprehended in the subject. The body of the planters, that is, those who cultivate tobacco, rice, indigo, and cotton, are, as a general description of cultivators, the best informed in regard to the object of their particular pursuit, though it is manifest that they have abundant matter for increased attention in perfecting their cultivation, in ascertaining those species of their valuable plants, which are most excellent, most certain, and most productive, in the improvement of their implements of husbandry, in the acquisition of auxiliary implements and machinery, in perfect-

ing the modes of curing their produce, and preparing it for market, and particularly in the attainment of an adequate substitute for the ordinary species of labourers, a supply of which has become precarious. It appears to be worth their considering, too, as well with an eye to profit, as humanity, whether an advantageous variation in the employment of some of the blacks might not be made, by introducing upon every estate some of the simpler manufactures to employ children, old and invalid persons of both sexes, and particularly the females during that term when two lives depend upon their health.

The merchants, navigators, fishermen, and shipbuilders of the united states, may be safely affirmed to be four descriptions of our citizens, whose industry is as uniformly energetic and well directed, as those of any country in the world, though it is certain that a much stricter economy prevails among persons of some foreign nations engaged in those pursuits—an example demanding serious attention.

The manufacturers in some branches pursue their occupations under the disadvantages of very few errors; yet those citizens would be sensibly benefited, were they able to relieve themselves of certain parts of their labour by the attainment of the auxiliary machinery, which are the purchase of larger capitals than are yet engaged in their line. Circumstances, however, of various kinds are daily contributing to remove this inconvenience. The bulk of the manufacturers do not want industry, nor skill enough to succeed in those simple manufactures, to which it is most their interest to apply themselves. It may be rather said, that they manufacture ordinary kinds of fabrics, from the nature of the demand, than that they manufacture badly. Their business is, moreover, progressively advancing, and has felt, on several occasions, some of them recent, the fostering hand of government.

The mechanic branches have been, till this time, on nearly as good a footing; but those employed in the erection of buildings ought now to seek the aid of such parts of science as have relation to their calling. Architecture has been little studied. It ought not to be forgotten, that a competent knowledge of it is no less conducive to economy and convenience, than to elegance and splendor.

The most important of all the employments of our citizens, that of *the farmer*, remains to be noticed. It is very much to be feared, that in point of execution, a candid examination would prove that this best of pursuits is most imperfectly conducted, at least in the grain states. The proofs are, innumerable instances of impoverished lands, bodies of meadow lands, in the old settlements, which remain in a state of nature, an almost universal inattention to the making or preserving of manure, the frequent inattention to the condition of the seed grain, evidenced by the growth of inferior grain in fields of wheat, and by the complexion of the flour in some quarters, the bad condition of barns, stables and fences, and in some places the total want of the former, the deficiency of spring-houses or other cool dairies in extensive tracts of country, the want, or a trifling stock, of bees, the frequent want of orchards, and the neglect of those which have been planted by preceding occupants, the neglect of the sugar tree, the neglect of fallen timber and fuel, accompanied with the

wanton felling of timber trees for fuel, the neglect of household manufactures in many families, the neglect of making pot-ash, the non-use of oxen, and above all, the growth in substance, of large bodies of farmers on lands of ordinary quality, while the inhabitants of extensive scenes, hardly extract from much superior lands, a miserable sustenance and more miserable clothing.

It is a fact very painful to observe, and unpleasant to represent, but it is indubitably true, that *farming* in the grain states, their great best business, the employment most precious in free governments, is, too generally speaking, the least understood, or the least economically and attentively pursued, of any of the occupations which engage the citizens of the united states. It is acknowledged, however, with satisfaction, that great changes have been lately made, and that the energy, spirit of improvement, and economy, which have been recently displayed, promise the regular and rapid melioration of the agricultural system. All other things have taken a course of great improvement—and it cannot be apprehended that the yeomanry of the united states will permit themselves to be excelled by any of their brethren, in the most precious characteristic of a good citizen—*usefulness in their proper sphere*.

Concerning the laws, which intrench upon the rights of property.

It is not remembered that the acts of the national legislature have been deemed by any of the possessors of any description of property, unfavourable to their rights, except the proceedings in regard to the public debt. It is no less curious than true, that a part of the community affirm that the government have injured the country by too much liberality, while another part charge the legislature with impairing the contract.

In taking a view of this subject, it should be remembered, that the state of things when it was taken up, was in every respect critical and uncertain. It was difficult to say what the country could perform, and more so to tell what they would comply with. It was perceived, on the one hand, that as such a state of *public credit* as preceded the year 1789, would ruin a government more energetic than that of the united states, so its immediate melioration was a matter of the most imperious necessity. On the other hand, the non-existence of one single efficient funding system, *yielding a full specie interest*, in any one state, and a number of painful facts in the financial operations of some of the legislatures, created a conviction, that there was either an inability or disinclination in all to render a specie payment in the full extent of the *explicit* contracts. Some of the contracts were found not to be explicit, containing promises of large sums under the name of specie, which it could not have been the expectation of the government at their date to discharge, or of the creditor to receive, in coin; because they promised to pay as specie, what was notoriously much less valuable than contracts previously liquidated at forty nominal dollars for one in coin. The peculiar claims of the original creditors also were strongly represented, while the conduct of every state in the union, in its particular finances, had discountenanced a discrimination in their favour; and the established laws of property were urged against a reduction of the owners' principal: questions were also raised about the original intrinsic value of the money and property received by the united states, leading to the

devising of a new scale of depreciation. By infusing into the propositions for a settlement of the debt, two qualities—a *reduction of the interest* and a *temporary irredeemability of the principal*, which have cost the debtor nothing, and the creditor very little; by vigorous and well devised efforts to recover credit at home and abroad, an arrangement was formed, and executed, which has given better payment to the creditor than could reasonably have been hoped. It is plain to every observer, that, but for the indiscretions of some of the public creditors, who superadded to the trials and fluctuations of a convalescent state of credit, the late unparalleled difficulties of the holders of the stock, the three species of the public paper, taken at a medium, would have been worth the nominal value in the market. *Hitherto it never has been.*

There yet remain, however, in the united states some laws which affect the rights of property. The operation of instalment and valuation laws is not terminated in two or three of the states. In two or three others, paper money is a tender in all or in particular cases. In some quarters, real estate is protected from execution for debt; and in others, the judgments of the courts are suspended, if the income of the estate bears a certain proportion to the creditors' demands. In some of the states, preferences are given to the claims of citizens, before those of citizens of the other states, or of foreigners: and a variety of ill exists in many quarters, in the form of insolvent laws. The federal constitution, and those of several of the states, have barred the introduction of these evils in regard to new transactions; and the states which are not chargeable with them, in regard to past affairs, have reaped, in the last three years, an ample reward for their wisdom and virtue. Property may almost be called the *palladium of communities*. Their moral safety at least is always at hazard, when that is unwarrantably invaded. In every case wherein difficulties to obtain his own are interposed in the way of the honest and industrious citizen, his loss is not all the public injury. A fellow-citizen—perhaps a member of a legislature (and through him a legislature itself) is corrupted in his principles.

Concerning the public debts.

When it is remembered, that the terms upon which the debts of the states were assumed by congress, are not more favourable than those on which the federal debt was funded, and when it is called to mind, that the unassumed debts of all the states are less valuable in the market than those which were assumed, it will appear, that the public creditors of the union have little reason to complain. When the advantages of the temporary irredeemability, and of the opportunity of investment in the bank are recollected, the little reason, if any existed, appears to be dissipated. On the other hand, when it is remembered, that long after the promulgation of the funding system and of the bank, the possessors of specie might have procured certificates upon very advantageous terms, that the united states draw a fifth of the profits of the bank without furnishing any of the capital, that the grant of irredeemability is temporary, and so perfectly nominal, that we have now a right to pay off more than we have money to discharge; when it is also borne in mind, that the terms given by congress to the public creditors,

were exceeded (by law at least) in several of the states, and that two of them have added to the benefits of their citizens from the funding system, without discriminating in favour of the original creditor, or against the present holder, the arrangement of the general government appears to be consistent with the public interests and with *the wisdom of the state legislatures*. If the funding system of congress has been thus equally just and beneficial with those of the states, it has been accompanied with many advantages which cannot be questioned. Public credit is restored—in consequence of that, the contracts for all public supplies are made for cash on the deliveries or performance—the money, thus early promised, is paid by anticipation on the proffer of indubitable security by the various contractors; and interest in favour of the united states has been allowed for the promptitude of her treasury—half a million of dollars of specie claims have been discharged; and purchases of the public debt, which bring the extinguished sum to about 2,400,000 dollars, have been made, or provided for—a series of payments since the month of September (required by the most distinguished ally of the united states, in the late war) have been made to serve the occasions of their unhappy colonists. Loans upon five per cent. upon four and a half per cent. and upon four per cent. interest, have been effected in two opulent scenes in Europe, solely by means of our restored credit, to repay, in the hour of need, to that ally, the monies lent to the united states in a like season. All that is due has been paid, part of that which is not yet due has been anticipated. Monies anxiously desired by France, have been discharged by means of loans at a lower interest. Both nations are benefited and pleased; but our country is honoured by the transaction. To have neglected our public credit, would have been to lose these advantages.

It will not be questioned, that there is in every walk of life or business a greater proportion of money, than was observable two years ago. Public works and buildings of every kind, and of species and values unknown among us till the present time, are undertaking every where. Private buildings, of equal variety, and comparative value, are springing up. The price of lands is advanced. The raw materials, though raised in much greater abundance, sell for larger prices. To what cause so powerful, so adequate, can these things be ascribed, as to the sales of part and the re-animation of the whole, of a public debt, ten times larger than the amount of all the specie ordinarily circulating in the country?

The relief of some of the states from their burdens, has been another beneficial consequence of the funding of the debt. It is but a few years since one of the most frugal, vigorous, and productive counties in Pennsylvania rose against the collectors of the taxes. The appreciation and sale of the immense mass of federal securities, owned by that state, has enabled her to discharge all her obligations, though she has abolished her general land tax, and discontinued her excise, both of which she has collected for forty years.

Some anxiety has been created by the share of our debt, which foreigners have obtained. But this was a powerful means of bringing the whole into its present beneficial action, by elevating its actual to its nominal value. It is not at all probable, that it will be drawn from the country. It has been observed, in the most tranquil and

prosperous state of Europe, that a great proportion of the families of those foreigners, who have made large investments in the united states, either in the times of the provinces, or since the revolution, have become inhabitants of this country, even when in its rudest infant state. At this serious moment, when almost every transatlantic country feels or apprehends disorders, our chances are infinitely increased. The united states, advanced in the means of subsistence, of comfort, and of elegance, now present to them an object of greater desire in a tranquil liberty, which they are struggling to obtain, a teeming agriculture, and a prosperous commerce, both foreign and internal. Conformably with these reflexions, we may affirm, that no great object in our affairs has failed to attract the notice of the foreigners, who have engaged in our funds. The internal navigation of South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New-Jersey and New-York, are among the witnesses of this truth. The banks, both national and state, the turnpike roads, and toll bridges, the sales of city estates, of cultivated farms, and particularly of unimproved lands, commerce, ship-building, manufactures, confirm the fact. Let us continue to exhibit an honest spirit in our laws and constitutions, an efficient execution of them, and due abstinence from unnecessary wars, and there cannot exist a doubt, that we shall draw much more copiously from the population, the arts, and the funds of Europe, than they will draw from those of the united states.

There exists in the united states one description of private difficulties and incumbrances, which must engage the solicitude of every feeling mind, which, by an examination into the detail and interior of our affairs, has been led to observe them. The cases alluded to are those of the citizens of two or three of the states, who are burdened with heavy debts or claims, which originated before the revolution. Whatever they may be finally adjudged to pay, the sum may be so great, and due from so many persons, as to give it the resemblance of a public debt: and as in one of those states it has already occasioned some sacrifices of their principal landed estates, very far below their value, so it will probably operate in the others, unless some extensive means, abundantly adequate to the occasion, can be brought to operate, before or at least at the time of executing the judgments of courts, which may be obtained. No resource, competent to the purpose, appears at all likely to present itself, unless it be the funded debt or stock of the united states and of the several states. The method by which this description of property can be rendered most immediately and effectually subservient to the interesting purpose of preventing the destruction of many families, would seem to be the fixture of it at a stable unfluctuating rate, adequate to its proper value, under the existing circumstances of the united states. It is manifest, that in such a state of the market, the dealers in the debt and would sell out, and others would not buy in again, and that they would seek objects for their money in the trade, the manufactures, the buildings, and the lands of the country, which might promise them more advantage. A tenth part of the value of the public debts, applied to the lands of the united states, would raise them every where to their real value, so that the debtor, who might be under a necessity to sell an estate, could dispose of

his property not only without a ruinous sacrifice, but probably to uncommon advantage. The proprietors of lands and buildings which might be under this probability of sale, would sustain no risk or injury in selling their estates for the public stock.

It may be alleged, that the holders of the debt will not go into scenes so remote to make investments : but there are facts, which appear to warrant a different opinion. The funds of New-England have been brought into Pennsylvania, for investment in lands of several kinds—the money of Pennsylvania and Delaware has been invested in mills and lands in Virginia—the greater part of the iron-works of Maryland (the most costly estates in our country,) were bought and worked by the capitals of residents in Great Britain before the revolution. The same fact existed in one great instance in New Jersey. The greatest cedar swamp, on the waters of the Delaware, that supplies the Philadelphia market, is owned in New England ; and people and vessels from that quarter, are annually sent to perform the business of it. The American public creditors, citizens of the united Netherlands, have recently purchased eight hundred tracts of land in a part of Pennsylvania, further from Philadelphia than the banks of James's River, York, or Rappahannock. In short, if the history of this country were examined, as it regards this subject, it would demonstrate, that the landed property of it has been constantly animated by the application of the monies of distant capitalists.

(*To be continued.*)

Detached thoughts on elective government.

WHEN the friends of hereditary power allege the experience of Poland as a proof of those evils, which (they say) must ever attend the appointment of a chief magistrate by election, they take care not to mention, that all those disorders arose from the factious, turbulent disposition of an ungovernable aristocracy, and were fomented by the jealousy and ambition of the different European despots, each of whom wished to see one of his own family on the throne, to which, unhappily, the laws permitted foreigners to aspire. When such a door lay open for bribery and intrigue, we need no longer wonder at the convulsions caused in Poland by every election.

Had the Polish peasantry heretofore enjoyed the same privileges, which their late revolution has conferred on them—that is to say—had they enjoyed some of those rights, to which, as men, they were entitled, and which the meanest American farmer enjoys—they would have been able in some measure to check the turbulent spirit of the aristocracy, and prevent much of that confusion, that usually attended the election of their monarchs. And had there been a law, expressly prohibiting the election of a foreigner, the kings of Europe would have had very little temptation to squander millions against millions, to procure the election of any one man, in preference to another.

Letters to a young lady. By the rev. John Benxst.

LETTER I.—*On affectation.*

THE tour of affectation is unbounded. I have just returned from a circle of ladies, who have been entertaining me with a very long harangue, on (what they choose to call,) *fine feelings*. This is quite a fashionable subject. The truth is, sensibility is considered as a matter of refinement, and a proof of being raised above the vulgar; and many young people, I do believe, would be more hurt by any reflexion on their sensibility, than if you suspected their piety and virtue.

This rage for the compliment of fine feelings seems to have originated in the writings of Sterne. His very eccentric talents were always contriving some fictitious tale of woe, and bidding the tear to drop; the general circulation of his works, and the novels which have since sprung up in the hot-bed of France, and of our own imaginations, have led young people to fancy every grace, and almost every virtue, comprized under this specious and comprehensive name.

Nothing certainly can be more nauseous and disgusting, than an affected sensibility; as nothing is more charming, than the pure and genuine. But, with all this noise about it, I am far from knowing whether there is much of the real in the world. Those, who would be thought to have it in perfection, are only in possession of the artificial. For is it sensibility to prefer the turpid pleasures of midnight to opening buds and blossoms—to the lessons, which the Creator gives in every vegetable and every insect—to undisturbed contemplation—to the raptures of devotion, or all the fair and enchanting landscapes of creation—to the sentiment, the taste and knowledge, that are displayed in the works of the most learned and ingenious men, or the entertainment and delight and profit, we might receive from the volume of revelation? Is it sensibility to form a sacred connexion with one person, and encourage a criminal attachment to another? Is it sensibility to leave the charms, the cries, the wants, and tender pleadings of an infant offspring, for the vain and perishable splendor of a ball, a birth-night, or a levee?

Every thinking person must be disgusted with such a kind of sensibility. Rigid criticism would call it by a very harsh name; and society has reason to reprobate its tendency. Yet Sterne's sensibility led to many of these evils; and who knows not, that a thousand ladies, who vaunt fine feelings, are dupes to this ridiculous illusion?

True feeling is of a very different complexion. Like genius, it must come from heaven; indeed it is a part of genius; and, like that, is very rare. It depends, considerably on temperament and organization; is much heightened by particular advantages of education, society, friends, reading, observation, and reflexion; and will generally be quickest in the most elevated minds. But, even when it is most genuine and poignant, it will never be a guide, safely to be trusted, till it is governed by reason, checked by discretion, and moulded by that religion, which requires us

to devote every instinct we have, to the glory of God, and to the happiness of all our fellow-creatures, and of ourselves.

Thus consecrated, it is a source of the purest and the richest blessings. It is the parent of an earnest devotion to him, who gave it, and of a thousand blessings to mankind. It appropriates all the sorrows of its brethren; it feels in every woe, "rejoices with them, that do rejoice, and weeps with them that weep;" and doubly alive to all the exercises of piety, in blossoms, in flowers, in minerals, in vegetables, in stars, in planets, in the azure vault of heaven, in thunders, in storms, in earthquakes, in volcanos, in the revolutions of empire, and destruction of cities, feels most exquisitely, adores and loves and venerates the wisdom, the power, the goodness and wonders of an all-present, and all-disposing God.

It is with this, as with every other grace and virtue. There is a false and a true. The false is loud and noisy, much addicted to egotism, and obtrudes itself on public observation, in order to gratify its own conceit and vanity; the other, modest, timid, retired, shrinks to itself; feels, but says nothing of its feelings; suffers, but conceals its sufferings; rejoices, but does not vaunt its joy; and is too delicate in its nature, and too much interested, to solicit pity, or to court approbation. The one is an humble fire-work, which cracks and sparkles; the other is that lightning, which, in an instant, electrifies and shocks; this is the offspring of heaven; that, the artificial creature of the world.

I will conclude this letter with a contrast taken from life. Flavia lies in bed till noon; as soon as she rises, she opens a novel, or a play-book; weeps profusely at imaginary distress, sips strong tea, till she is almost in hysterics; concludes, that sensibility is all her own, and is perpetually complaining how her feelings are shocked with such a room, or such a prospect, the coarseness of this character, and of that conversation, and how the sight of a poor beggar gives her the vapours.

Emily never says a word about her feelings, rises with the dawn, endeavours to fortify her body with air and exercise, and her mind with devotion; is oftener seen with her bible, than any other book; seems pleased with every person and every object about her, and puts on a cheerful smile, when her bosom is really throbbing with pain, for the distresses of her fellow-creatures.

I was lately in her company, when a case of very singular distress happened to be related, of a lady reduced, from the height of affluence to a poverty, which she attempted to conceal. She uttered not a syllable, but, in a little while, quitted the room, and returned, after a considerable interval, with eyes, that she had vainly bidden not to betray her emotions. The next circumstance I heard, was, that she had sent a 50l. bank note without any signature, to the relief of the fair sufferer. The secret was discovered, contrary to the strictest injunctions, by the imprudence of the bearer. She has, since, adopted one of the daughters to be educated for her own.

Tell me now, my Lucy, which of these is the true and the productive sensibility.

LETTER II.—*On Voltaire and Rousseau.*

I WILL give you candidly, at your request, my opinion of some celebrated writers. If you differ from me on reading them, it may produce a collision of sentiments, which will be favourable to our mutual improvement. At any rate, it will serve to exercise your own judgment and discrimination.

Voltaire is a graceful, but a superficial writer. He had more taste than genius, and more liveliness than authenticity. Volatile in his researches, impatient of investigation and hasty in his decisions; you can scarcely rely on the truth or authority of any facts, he relates.

If I must recommend any of his works, it should be his *Henriade*. But I do not wish you to cultivate any close acquaintance with so erroneous, and seductive an author.

Rousseau is very fanciful, but very engaging. His whims are all the ebullitions of genius; and, as such, they please. Nothing was ever so strangely romantic, as his *Emilius*, or system of education; a mere paper edifice of children, which the first and gentlest touch of experience totally destroys. You may read it to be amused, not to be instructed.

Why, you will naturally ask, were these distinguished men, enemies to revelation? The truth is, genius disdains to move in shackles, or to tread beaten paths. Originality is its constant aim. It must candidly be owned, that revelation has some doctrines, superior to our reason. Otherwise, we should have no exercise for our faith; and our organs of perception would be too subtle and too refined for a mortal state. And these very enlightened men choose not to stop at mysteries, but, in the pride of understanding, arrogantly disbelieve what they cannot comprehend.

Happy the humble christian, who submits and adores! who considers reason but as an imperfect guide, and patiently waits the moment, when the splendors of full discovery shall shine around him!

LETTER III.—*On lord Chesterfield.*

MY DEAR LUCY,

AFTER all the noise, that has been made about him, what has this great lord Chesterfield written? What new ideas has he communicated to the world?

He has given us a few sketches of heathen mythology, of the Grecian, Roman, and English histories, written in a pleasing style; and he has inculcated upon youth, that excellent maxim, of not losing a single moment from improvement. A man of very moderate talents might have done likewise. He had, doubtless, some claim to taste; but very little strength or originality of genius, appears through his writings; but he was a nobleman, who had been conspicuous for his station, and his coronet had reflected a lustre on his page.

What real critic must not smile at his decision, when he boldly pronounces the *Henriade* of Voltaire, superior to the *Iliad*, the *Æneid*, and to *Paradise lost*? Perhaps this poem may be free from some little spots of the others; but then it is not a sun, whose fire

consumes every slighter blemish, and leaves the reader wrapt in a profound enthusiasm and amazement.

If it surpasses them in a cold correctness, has it their sublimity, their energy and fire? If it has not their excrescences, has it their impassioned beauties; Compared with the Iliad, or with the work of Milton, it is a neat spruce fir, placed near a spreading and majestic oak. It is a gentle rivulet by the side of a foaming torrent, or a magnificent ocean. It is a pretty artificial fire-work playing in the neighbourhood of a tremendous *Ætna*.

But Voltaire was a congenial writer, and a congenial soul. In praising his superficial talents, Chesterfield did an honour to his own.

If this writer had not been a peer, who would have read his letters with so much avidity? All he has produced, would, immediately have perished with the other frothy bubbles of the day. His eternal repetition of "graces, graces," makes one absolutely sick; and the regimen he prescribes for the attainment of them, creates him an enemy, in every friend of religion and of virtue.

Society should burn his books. All the women in the world should form an unanimous confederacy against him. He has done every thing in his power to render them detestable; they should do every thing in theirs, to make the infamy of his character immortal.

Read him, to despise his opinions and maxims. Read him, that you may rescue the honours of your sex, and give the lie, in your own example, to every libel he has uttered, and every scandal he has endeavoured to propagate through the world.

HATTERAS SHOALS.

AT the time of sir Water Raleigh's approaching the American shores, the shoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no vessels, in that latitude, ventured within seven leagues of the land. From a survey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coast, there can be no doubt but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation; as these shoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered not with more than five or six feet water, at a great distance from the land.

The constant experience of the coasting trade of the united states, demonstrates, either that the ancient drafts were purposely falsified, in order to deter seamen from venturing too near a coast with which they had as yet a very slender acquaintance; or (which is the most probable) that by the strong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the gulph stream, the sands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean, by some ancient convulsion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminishing to what we find them to be at this time.

At present, the out-shoals, which lie about fourteen miles south-east of the cape, are but of five or six acres extent, and where they are really dangerous to vessels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the shoalest part of these is, at low water, about ten feet, and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, spouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the vio-

lent agitations of the gulph, which touches the eastern edge of these banks, from whence the declivity is sudden, that is to say, from ten fathoms to no soundings. On the spot abovementioned, which is firm sand, it has been the hard lot of many a good vessel to strike, in a gale of wind, and go to pieces. In moderate weather, however, these shoals, may be passed over, if necessary, at full tide, without much danger, by vessels not drawing more than eight, nine, or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vast extent, and called the Full-moon-shoal, a ridge runs the whole distance to the cape, about a N. W. course: this ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide, generally ten, eleven, and twelve feet water, with gaps at unequal intervals, affording good channels of about fifteen or sixteen feet. The most noted of these channels, and most used by coasting vessels, is about one mile and an half from the land, and may easily be known by a range of breakers, which are always seen, on the west side, and a breaker-head or two on the eastern side, which however are not so constant, only appearing when the sea is considerably agitated. This channel is at least two and a half miles wide, and might at full sea be safely passed by large ships. These, however, rarely attempt it. The common tides swell about six feet, and always come from the south-east. A little north of the cape is good anchorage in four or five fathoms, and, with the wind to the westward, a boat may land in safety, and even bring off casks of fresh water, plenty of which is to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the sand.

Philad. 1792.

DEPENDENT TERRITORIES

ARE of two kinds. First—such as yield to the superior state at once a monopoly of their useful productions, and a market for its superfluities. These, by exciting and employing industry, might be a source of beneficial riches, if an unfavourable balance were not created by the charge of keeping such possessions. The West Indies are an example. Second—those, which, though yielding also a monopoly and a market, are principally lucrative, by means of the wealth which they heap on individuals, who transport and dissipate it within the superior state. This wealth is not only like the former, overbalanced by the cost of maintaining its sources, but resembles that drawn, not from industry, but from mines, and is productive of similar effects. The East Indies are an example.

All dependent countries are to the superior state, not in the relation of children and parent, according to the common phrase, but in that of slave and master, and have a like influence on character. By rendering the labour of the one, the property of the other, they cherish pride, luxury, and vanity on one side; on the other, vice and servility, or hatred and revolt.

OBSERVATIONS ON BEES.

By the president of the Germantown society for promoting domestic manufactures.

GENTLEMEN,

AT the last meeting of the society, a resolution was adopted, recommending to the members to procure the best information respecting the raising of bees; the society being of opinion that the profit and advantage to be derived from this source of domestic riches merited some attention.

It is a received opinion, that the bee provides itself with wax and honey from the flowers of plants; therefore the number of bees which may be kept to advantage in a neighbourhood, must depend on the quantum of pasture afforded by the surrounding fields. Whenever a particular district of country becomes overstocked, the bees suffer, and the quantity of wax and honey collected does not recompence the farmer for his attention. The ancients were so sensible of this, that Columella informs us, that as few places are so happily situated as to afford plenty of pasture, it was the advice of Celsus, that after the vernal pastures are consumed, the bees should be transported to places abounding with autumnal flowers, as was practised by conveying the bees from Achaia to Attica; and also in Sicily, where they were brought to Hybla from other parts of the island. Maillet, in his curious description of Egypt, relates, that one of their most admirable contrivances, is their sending their bees annually into distant countries, in order to procure them pasture at a time when they could not find any at home, and afterwards bringing them back, like shepherds who travel with their flocks, and making them feed as they go. The hives are placed in a boat prepared for the purpose: and after they have remained some days at their farthest station, and are supposed to have gathered all the wax and honey they could find in the fields within two or three leagues around, their conductors convey them in the same boats two or three leagues lower down the river. The author of the natural history of bees, gives the following account of what is practised in this way in France. M. Proutau, says he, keeps a great number of hives; his situation is one of those in which flowers are very soon scarce, and where few or none are seen after the corn is ripened, he then sends his bees into Beauce, or Gatinois. This is a journey of twenty miles—the hives are placed on a cart, and removed with great care.

As it is more than probable that the members of this society will not think it proper to remove their hives in order to procure pasture for their bees, it is necessary that the number of hives kept should be in proportion to the pasture afforded by the neighbourhood; a little experience and observation would soon ascertain this point when every neighbour confining himself to his proportion, the raising of bees might be carried on to the advantage of all.

I have conversed with several elderly men who have been attentive to bees for forty or fifty years. They say the raising of bees is not attended with the success of former years; and that this is owing to the want of pasture for these valuable insects.

Straw hives are preferable to any other habitations, because the straw is not as liable to be heated by the rays of the sun; and is

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a better security against the cold, than any kind of wood. The form and fashion of the common straw hive is sufficiently known; but they are often made too high for their width. The best size is such as would hold about six gallons. Whoever makes use of hives should at all times have them well secured from the inclemency of the weather; by means of a substantial straw cap; which not only preserves the bees from wet, than which nothing is more injurious, but also preserves the hive in a more equal temperature during the severity of summer heats and winter colds.

A variety of opinions have been entertained, respecting the situation and form of an apiary; experience has pointed out the most simple plan to be the best. It is now generally allowed, that the best situation for a hive of bees, is on a stool raised about two feet from the ground, and placed not exactly level, but a little slanting, that the water which falls on the stool may not incommode the bees. If the straw cap is properly formed, it will extend over the edges of the stool and prevent any such injury.

The latter end of August, or the beginning of September, the combs are fullest of honey. This points out the proper season for taking it. The old way is to kill the bees—but many methods have been recommended for taking the honey without destroying the insect. I attempted this new plan, and injured my stock of bees. Mr. George Shoemaker and Mr. Lukens, who have had great experience in raising of bees, met with no better success; both these gentlemen prefer the old method of destroying them. There can be no great purpose answered in preserving the bees, when their food is taken away; for in these circumstances they frequently require more care and attention than the farmer can bestow, to preserve them from perishing. The practice of killing the bees, when you take their wax and honey, is not so cruel as it may appear on the first view, to persons of great humanity. The life of the bee is naturally but short, and with the best management they must pass but an uncomfortable winter, after they are robbed of their provision.

We have not thought it necessary to take notice of the natural history, or the economy of the bee. We may just observe, that the hive is a school, to which numbers of people ought to be sent, prudence, industry, benevolence, public spiritedness, economy, neatness, and temperance, are all visible among the bees. These little animals are all actuated by a social spirit, which forms them into a body politic, intimately united, and perfectly happy. They all labour for the general advantage; having no partial interest, no selfish distinction to support, they are happy, because the concurrence of their several labours inevitably produces abundance, which contributes to the riches of each individual.—Let us compare human societies to this, and they will appear altogether monstrous. Necessity, reason and philosophy, have established them for the commendable purposes of mutual aid and benefits; but a spirit of selfishness destroys all; and one half of mankind to load themselves with superfluities, leave the other destitute of common necessities.

RESPECT TO RULERS.

A RESPECT to rulers is the virtue of a patriot; but it ought to have its limits. If it degenerates into blind servility and

extravagant flattery, it injures the cause of liberty, and degrades the character of freemen. If the minds of a people should ever be corrupted by the vicious practices of flattery, and the Asiatic customs of extravagant homage, there is no security against the gradual and gentle encroachments of a favourite. If the mind of a woman is corrupted, vice has possession of the citadel, and she is exposed to guilt and dishonour. If the minds of any people are depraved, they will yield, without an effort, to the most ignominious and base respect for rulers; people are generally influenced by passion, and vibrate as a pendulum to opposite points. The same people, who were alarmed at the shadow of power, and who accompanied the gift of necessary authority, with fear and trembling, may abandon themselves, on another occasion, to the most sanguine confidence, and to the imperious dictates of idolatrous affections.

That Roman senate, which the victorious Gauls represented as an assembly of gods, and that free people, who made several secessions from Rome, in the cause of liberty, adored and deified the most worthless emperors, and even placed in the seat of goddesses, a strumpet. When the fences of political and republican morality are broken down, the most republican people on the face of the earth may lapse into all the absurd, licentious, and profane excesses of Roman flattery.

Society has not suffered so much from disrespectful language to rulers, as from the flattery of the sycophants of power. The recorded miseries and misfortunes of nations, may be attributed to the malignant influence of flatterers.

If government is well administered, and governors have patriotism, humanity, and disinterestedness, disrespectful language cannot disturb the machine of government, or convulse society. If the government is ill administered, and if our governors are mercenary, ambitious, and designing, the point of satire should "harrow up their souls."



DISMAL SWAMP IN VIRGINIA.

THE Difmal is a very large swamp, or bog, extending from north to south near thirty miles; and from east to west, at a medium, about ten; it lies, partly in Virginia and partly in North Carolina. No less than five navigable rivers, besides creeks, rise out of it; whereof two run into Virginia, viz. The south branch of Elizabeth, and the south branch of Nansemond rivers; and three into North Carolina, namely, North river, North-west river, and Pequimonds. All these, hide their heads, properly speaking, in the Difmal, there being no signs of them above ground. For this reason there must be plentiful subterraneous stores of water to feed so many rivers, or else the soil is replete with this element, drained from the higher land that surrounds it, that it can abundantly afford these supplies. This is most probable, because the ground of this swamp is a mere quagmire, trembling under the feet of those that walk upon it, and every impression is instantly filled with water. We could run a long stick up to the head, without resistance; and whenever a fire is made, so soon as the crust of leaves

and trash are burnt through, the coals sink down into a hole, and are extinguished.

The skirts of the Disinal, towards the east, are overgrown with reeds, ten or twelve feet high, interlarded every where with strong bamboe briars, in which the men's feet are perpetually entangled. Among these, grows here and there a cypress, or white cedar, which last is commonly mistaken for the juniper. Towards the south end of it is a very large tract of reeds, without any trees growing amongst them, which being constantly green and waving in the wind, is called the green sea. In many parts, especially on the borders, grows an ever-green shrub very plentifully, that goes by the name of the gall bush. It bears a berry which dyes a black colour, like the gall of an oak, from whence it borrows its name.

Near the middle of the Disinal the trees grow much thicker, the cypresses as well as the cedars. These being always green, and loaded with very large tops, are much exposed to the wind, and easily blown down, in this boggy place, where the soil is soft, and consequently affords but slender hold for the roots that shoot into it. By these, the passage is in most places interrupted, they lying piled in heaps, and riding on one another: nor is this all, for the snags left in them point every way, and require the utmost caution to clamber over them.

'Tis remarkable, that towards the heart of this horrible desert, no beast or bird approaches, nor so much as an insect, or a reptile. This must happen, not so much from the moisture of the soil, as from the everlasting shade occasioned by the thick shrubs and bushes, so that the friendly beams of the sun can never penetrate them, to warm the earth: nor, indeed do any birds, care to fly over it, any more than they are said to do over the lake Avernus, for fear of the noisome exhalations that rise from this vast body of dirt and nastiness. These noxious vapours infect the air round about, giving agues and other distempers to the neighbouring inhabitants.

On the western border of the Disinal is a pine swamp, above a mile in breadth, great part of which is covered with water, knee-deep: however, the bottom is firm, and though the pines growing upon it are very tall, yet they are not easily blown down by the wind: so that the people waded through this part of it without any hindrance but what the depth of the water gave them. With all these disadvantages, the Disinal, though disagreeable to the other senses, is in many places pleasant to the eye, because of the perpetual verdure, which makes every season look like the spring, and every month look like May.

On the comparative excellence of the sciences and arts; by Mr. William Roscoe. Read in the Manchester philosophical society.

THERE is, perhaps, no circumstance more injurious both to our improvement and happiness, than a propensity to engage, and persevere, in the study of particular branches of science, without first taking that enlarged and general view of our nature and destination, by which we ought to ascertain, and arrange in due succession the proper objects of our pursuit. For want of attention to this important subject, learning and industry have frequently been

exerted on unworthy objects; and genius and taste trifled away, without either affording advantage to mankind, or obtaining reputation to their possessor.

If, from the time of our entrance on the world, we were enabled fully to exercise those powers of mind which are but gradually unfolded, this would be the first consideration which would suggest itself to a rational being; and though those powers are developed only by degrees, yet there is a period in the life of every man, when, collecting together those ideas, which have been suffered to wander almost unrestrained over the fields of amusement, it behoves him to consider with serious attention that tablet, which is to contain, in eternal colours, the picture of his future life; and, like a skilful artist, to observe what requires his first attention, and what are only secondary objects of his regard.

As it is the first aim of the painter to produce on his canvass, some great and striking effect—and by a proper arrangement of parts, to form a beautiful and consistent whole; so it is the business of every man, in the conduct of life, to exhibit to the world a great and consistent character. In order to accomplish this end, it is necessary to keep one grand object in view, and never suffer ourselves to be drawn from it by too minute an attention to less important parts; for though these may be in themselves commendable, yet, if the principal object has been neglected, in order to bestow more assiduity on these inferior parts, it betrays a deficiency in judgment and true taste, which it will be impossible any other merit can fully compensate.

It is, however, much to be apprehended, that many persons have passed through the world, not only without discovering, but without once reflecting on the proper objects of their pursuit: and the number is not less, perhaps, of those, who, having formed clear and determinate ideas of their duty, have in the course of their conduct lost sight of them; and suffered those things, which required their immediate exertions, totally to supersede the higher ends, to which they ought only to be auxiliary.

In general life, what is more common than to suffer the laudable desire of acquiring independence to degenerate into an eagerness for accumulating riches, without a reference to any further end? But can we avoid pitying the man who employs his time in gilding the frame, when he should be finishing the picture?

In the pursuits of science, this error continually occurs; we suffer some particular study, which, perhaps, accident rather than choice first suggested, to claim the continual sacrifice of our time, and the full exertion of our talents; while subjects remain neglected, of far more importance, and, perhaps, in fact more suited to our tempers and abilities.

The difficulty of divesting ourselves of particulars, and looking on things in a general view, will, however, decrease in proportion as we habituate ourselves to such employment; and it is rather for the purpose of illustrating the propriety of the practice, than with the expectation of facilitating it, that I enter more fully into the subject.

Man in his original constitution, is endowed with a variety of faculties, different in their ends and nature; but, I conceive, they may be reduced to the three following, viz. the moral sense, or that

which distinguishes virtue and vice; the rational faculty, distinguishing truth and falsehood; and the sentimental faculty, or, as it is usually called, taste, which distinguishes beauty from deformity. To the acquisitions made in improving the rational and moral powers we give the name of science; whilst the sentimental faculty is the foundation of the pleasures we receive from the study of the polite arts.

As these faculties may be improved by exercise, so they may be injured, and decay by neglect, and become totally inapplicable to any good and useful purpose: and it is therefore the duty of every rational being, to make this improvement the first object of his attainment. But in doing this, we should first enquire by what means we may best answer this good end; for as these original endowments can only be cultivated by means of the sciences and arts, and as these are much diversified in themselves, disclose to us different views, and lead to different ends; it becomes a business of much importance, to enquire what particular branch of science, or of art, is most deserving of our attention, before we suffer ourselves to be attracted by such other less important, though not useless, investigations, as may accidentally come across our way.

Now it may certainly be taken for granted, that as beings accountable for our moral conduct, and influencing by that conduct, not only our own happiness, but, in a great degree, the happiness of others, those studies which have an immediate reference to the moral duties of life, are of the first importance.

The study of the works of nature may next be allowed to engage our attention—a study, on the knowledge of which depend many of the conveniences and pleasures of life; and which has, perhaps, a still higher claim to our notice, as inducing us to form to ourselves proper ideas of the attributes and perfections of the great creator; who has opened before us his extensive volume, and endowed us with abilities to judge of, and taste to enjoy the beauties it affords.

Science, then, is either moral, or natural; the first, immediately connected with the conduct of human life; the second, more remotely so, through the medium of the works of nature: with respect to the former, as it is the indispensable duty of every man to be as fully acquainted with it, as his abilities and situation will permit, so it is disgraceful and dangerous to neglect it; while the latter, though honourable and useful in the acquisition, may be postponed, or omitted, till a proficiency be made in more important studies.

Notwithstanding this, it has been observed of late, and experience seems to justify the observation, that the present age is more attached to the study of natural philosophy, than to that of morals: which may possibly arise from an idea, that the latter affords but a small scope for the exercise of the mind, and consists chiefly of propositions either self-evident, or capable of a simple and decided demonstration. Admitting for a moment, this to be the case; yet it by no means precludes the necessity of transferring to our own use, the result of other men's labours; which can only be done by a diligent application to the same studies and pursuits. It is not whether the science be known, but whether I know it, about which I ought to be solicitous.

It will, however, appear, upon a nearer view, that the science of morals affords a much wider field than may at first sight be imagined. The great variety of circumstances and combinations which arise in a polished and commercial state, open to an accurate observer, a perpetual source of speculation. It is, however, my province to sketch the outline only; to fill it up, properly, would require higher abilities, and more accurate research.

The duties of life are immediately derived from the different relations in which mankind are placed. As a simple, existing being, detached from any other of his species, there is a connexion between man and his creator, which subjects him to certain duties, prior in point of obligation, to every other claim.

As individuals, connected with other individuals, all entitled to the same rights as ourselves—as members of the particular state from which we derive protection—and from the other social and domestic relations of life, many duties are incumbent on us, which require no small degree of accuracy, care, and attention, to perform in such a manner as to merit the approbation of those with whom we are connected, and of our own minds.

Nor let it be thought beneath the dignity of a philosopher, to examine the laws that subsist between man and the inferior animals of the creation; a subject, yet, but slightly touched on, though, highly deserving of further enquiry. That acts of injustice may be, and too frequently are exercised upon them, cannot be doubted; and if so, the necessity of some regulations, in this respect, is the immediate consequence of such concession. A right of property, according to the present system of things, includes also a right to torment, to mutilate, and to kill; to weary out nature by repeated sufferings; or to destroy at once that vital spark, the immediate gift of the divinity, which, when once extinguished, no human power can restore: but, it is to be hoped, this may not arise so much from a ferocity and wanton propensity to cruelty in the human mind, as from a too prevalent idea, that there are no mutual rights between man and the brute creation; absolute property being vested in the one, and unlimited resignation in the lot of the other. To counteract this false and injurious opinion, neither moral injunctions, nor political regulations should be wanting; nor can the powers of the mind be more honourably exerted, than in preventing the unnecessary extension of actual pain in the universe; or in pleading the cause of that class of beings, to whom nature, though she gave the capacity of pain, denied the power of remonstrating against their sufferings.

These then are of all others the studies,

*Quæ magis ad nos
Pertinent, et nescire malum est.*

On the cultivation of these depends not only our present, but our future welfare; and shall we, with the ill-timed application of the pretended philosopher, persist in the solution of a mathematical problem, while the house burns around us; or suffer shells and feathers to attract our notice, while our happiness and our misery hang yet in the balance, and it remains in the power of our utmost exertion to throw an atom into the scale?

Impressed with the idea that these studies are of the first impor-

tance to us, and conscious that we are not uninformed with respect to them; it may then be allowed us, to engage in the acquisition of other branches of science, which unite, with the gratification of an innocent and natural passion, the expectation of being enabled to render our employment of essential service to the happiness of mankind.

To these studies we may give the name of natural philosophy, though, perhaps, in a more general acceptation than that in which it has been, of late, understood: but I am not aware of any impropriety in the use of this term, applied to the study of the whole system of nature; as well intellectual as material. The faculties of the human mind are as much a part of that system, as the form of our bodies, and seem therefore equally to be included under the study of natural philosophy.

In pursuing the subject, it will, however, be necessary to advert to the different channels into which this great branch of science is divided. These are, first, the knowledge of intellect, called metaphysics; secondly, the knowledge of the extent and quantity of substances, called mathematics; and thirdly, the knowledge of particular properties of substances, usually called physics.

"The mind of man," says a late excellent writer, "is the noblest work of God, which nature discovers to us, and therefore on account of its dignity deserves our study." That this is the primary, and most important branch of natural philosophy, must be evident to any one who considers, that, before we apply ourselves to acquire extraneous knowledge, we ought to ascertain what particular kind our faculties are adapted to attain; and having seen what is, and what is not, in our power, we may then be enabled to pursue such subjects as are within our reach; and not imprudently lavish our time on those which come not within the scope of the faculties with which we are endowed.

(To be continued.)

A brief comparison of some of the principal arguments in favour of public and private education. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.

[From the same work.]

THERE are few questions more important, when considered in every point of view, than those which relate to education. Allowing the original differences stamped upon human minds to be great, yet education marks far greater and stronger lines of distinction between one mind and another. It was education which formed the polished and lettered sage, in the era of the highest Grecian splendor. And it is education which moulds the savage Indian for the desert.

"Dii immortales! Homini homo quid præstat!

Stulto intelligens quid interest!"*

It is generally said, in praise of the present age, that it is more sensible than any which have preceded, of the immense importance of education. I mean not to detract from the real merit of

NOTE.

* Terence Eun. Act. II. Sec. 2.

my cotemporaries, by hinting a suspicion that something must be abated of this high compliment. The object and end upon which modern education is often employed, will not, I fear, do the greatest honour to our discernment, or our piety.

Among the various plans of education, each of which has had its warm admirers, and sanguine advocates, the parent, anxiously interested for the best welfare of his son, (for I wish to confine the present subject to boys) is often greatly at a loss which to prefer. There are, probably, advantages and disadvantages peculiar to every system. The point to be wished for, is to balance these so justly one against another, as to form the proper conclusion.

There are not a few, both in ancient and modern times, who contend earnestly for a public scheme of education. There are others, perhaps an equal number, who object as earnestly against it. We must imagine the general views of those who embrace the opposite sides of this question to be exactly the same. But they consider the several schemes in different aspects.

I have not the vanity to hope that I shall be able to offer a single argument, which has not been repeatedly canvassed. My utmost wish in choosing this subject was, not to offer something new; but to throw out a few hints, merely by way of introducing a question, than which none greater and more interesting has been, or, by our laws, can be agitated in these meetings.

That we may speak with precision on this subject, it will be necessary to define the terms, public and private education.

By public education, we mean education at a large public school, consisting of perhaps two or three hundred boys; where the boys live in some common apartment destined for this use, or are boarded in great numbers with persons who only undertake to find them commons and accommodation.

By private education, we mean education at home, in the house, and under the eye of a parent, or private tutor.

Between these two schemes, there will be almost infinite gradations. Exactly in the middle between them, are those schools, where boys are boarded in the house of a master, become parts of his family, and are not more in number than he can entirely manage and instruct himself.

We may perhaps class the prime objects of education in the following order, beginning with those of less importance, and rising up to those of the greatest. Health—knowledge—temper—self-government—morals.

I. HEALTH.

It is questioned, whether the carelessness which must necessarily prevail in a large public school, with respect to the several articles of diet, lodging, dampness, &c.—or the constant careful attention paid to all these circumstances, in the house of a parent, be more friendly to health and vigour of constitution. It is said, “that an excess of caution injures both the body and the mind, rendering the one puny, and the other pusillanimous.” It is added, “that in a large number of boys, there are more incitements to play, and to those active athletic exercises, which brace the system, and render it robust and hardy.”

It must be acknowledged, that the closeness of a nursery is unfriendly to the constitution. But why must we necessarily suppose

a boy to be confined to a nursery in his father's house? May he not be accustomed at home to any degree of hardness at the pleasure of the parent? And are not the principles and conduct of parents, in fact very different? Nor will sufficient incitements to play be wanting, if properly attended to and improved.

With respect to health, then, a boy may have all the advantages, without the many disadvantages attending a more public plan. And, from what I have observed of life, I should be ready to conclude, that children who have been educated upon the system of extreme carelessness in these particulars, have not appeared more vigorous and healthy when they have grown to maturity.

II. KNOWLEDGE.

It is urged, in favour of public education, "that emulation, that strong and noble principle, when well managed, is more likely to be felt in its proper influence, when there are many, than when there are few competitors. The numbers, and the abilities of the candidates sharpen the edge of genius and of industry, and thus push on the youthful mind to superior excellence."

It may, perhaps, be said, on the other hand, "that to the boy of more brilliant parts, and who stands at the head of his class, the argument from emulation may be allowed. But that these will be comparatively few; and that to others, who are not able to attain this honourable elevation, it will be reversed, for that its influence will tend to discouragement and depression." It may be added, "that, in large schools, boys are necessarily connected together in classes, like horses in a carriage; that they cannot move on beyond a certain pace; and that this pace must be accommodated to the parts and quickness of the most indolent and stupid in the class; or else, it will be, for one boy in the class too quick, and for another, too slow. The consequence will be almost equally prejudicial to both. The one is pushed forward beyond his speed; he is liable to be continually punished for no fault; or hurried on through subjects, of which he has not been able to gain any clear and competent knowledge. The other is kept down from those attainments, to which he might otherwise have ascended. This constant and wretched clog; it may be said, will be prevented by having every boy to stand single; or, at least, by matching boys of equal capacity together, who may thus be urged forward exactly according to their strength, neither dejected by the superior genius of one, nor fettered by the greater dullness of another."

To these arguments it may, I think, with great force be added, "that, in a very large number of boys, there will always be as many, or more of those who do not excel, as of those who do. If, therefore, the one may be supposed to animate, or to ashamed, the other may, with equal truth, be supposed to keep those in countenance, whose abilities are not so bright, or whose industry is not so unremitting."

In vindication of the order which I have assigned to knowledge, it may be observed, that the great end of mental cultivation is, to give that exercise and habit to the various powers of the mind, which may enable them to act hereafter in all the affairs of human life with the greatest advantage. It is not merely the quantity of ideas acquired, but the ability obtained by the soul, of thinking,

reasoning, and determining rightly, in every event of the changeful scene, which is of the greatest importance.*

III. TEMPER,

Or, perhaps, more properly, social affections.

It may be urged by the advocates for private schools, "that there the heart is longer under the influence of the softer and more, domestic feelings—that reverence to parents, and love to brothers, sisters, and other relations, is there in continual habit—that on these mild and tender charities of life, the temper and the comfort of mankind chiefly depend—and that, in a public school, these amiable scions of the soul have not room to shoot, but must of necessity be miserably neglected."

If to this argument it be answered, "that in a public education there will be partialities and attachments formed:" it may be replied, "that these are not exactly of the same nature, nor will they have the same influence on future temper and future happiness."

It will perhaps be said, "that in larger schools, connexions and friendships may be formed, which may be of the most lasting, honourable and advantageous tendency in future life."

This advantage appears to me to be a very precarious one. Early connexions between a richer and a poorer boy, founded, probably, on caprice on the one hand, and abject obsequiousness on the other, seldom continue long. Sometimes, indeed, an honourable union of equals may lay a foundation for future friendship, of the most endeared and permanent nature. And it is possible that some instances may have occurred, of friendships formed between youths whose fortunes were unequal, which have been as beneficial to the one, as honourable to the other. But, as boys are often separated at so early an age, and dispersed into such different scenes and regions, the hope of this ought not to be allowed much weight. And fact will, I persuade myself, bear witness to very few instances of this kind; too few to give any great degree of force to this argument.

(To be continued.)



Some account of Christopher Columbus, with an enquiry into his true character; in opposition to the prevailing opinion which is entertained of it. (From Payne's "new system of geography," just published, in two volumes, folio.)

CHristopher COLUMBUS, who was destined to the high honour of revealing a new hemisphere to Europeans, was by birth a Genoese, who had been early trained to a sea-faring life, and, having acquired every branch of knowledge connected with that profession, was no less distinguished by his skill and abilities, than for his intrepid and persevering spirit. This man, when about forty years of age, had formed the great idea of reaching the East Indies by sailing westward; but, as his fortune was very small, and the attempt required very effectual patronage, desirous that

NOTE.

* "Leotychides interrogatus, quid potissimum, oportet pueros ingenuos discere! Quæ illis, inquit, ubi ad virilem ætatem pervenerint, usui sunt futura."

Cicero.

his native country should profit by his success, he laid his plan before the senate of Genoa; but the scheme appearing chimerical, it was rejected. He then repaired to the court of Portugal; and although the Portuguese were at that time distinguished for their commercial spirit, and John II. who then reigned, was a discerning and enterprising prince, yet the prepossessions of the great men in his court, to whom the matter was referred, caused Columbus finally to fail in his attempt there also. He next applied to Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Arragon and Castile, and at the same time sent his brother Bartholomew (who followed the same profession, and who was well qualified to fill the immediate place under such a leader) to England, to lay the proposal before Henry VII. which, likewise, very fortunately for the future well-being of the country, met with no success. Many were the years which Christopher Columbus spent in ineffectual attendance at the Castilian court; the impoverished state into which the finances of the united kingdom were reduced by the war with Granada, repressing every disposition to attempt great designs; but, the war being at length terminated, the powerful mind of Isabella broke through all obstacles: she declared herself the patroness of Columbus, while her husband Ferdinand, declining to partake as an adventurer in the voyage, only gave it the sanction of his name. Thus did the superior genius of a woman effect the discovery of one half of the globe!

The ships sent on this important search were only three in number; two of them very small: they had ninety men on board. Although the expense of the expedition had long remained the sole obstacle to its being undertaken, yet, when every thing was provided, the cost did not amount to more than 4,000*l.* and there were twelve months provisions put on board.

Columbus set sail from Port Palos, in the province of Andalusia, August 3d, 1492: he proceeded to the Canary Islands, and thence directed his course due West, in the latitude of about twenty-eight degrees north. In this course he continued for two months, without falling in with any land; which caused such a spirit of discontent and mutiny to rise, as the superior address and management of the commander became unequal to repress, although for these qualities he was eminently distinguished. He was at length reduced to the necessity of entering into a solemn engagement, to abandon the enterprise and return home, if land did not appear in three days. Probably he would not have been able to restrain his people so long from acts of violence and outrage, in pursuing so untried and dreary a course, had they not been sensible, that their safety in returning home depended very much on his skill as a navigator in conducting the vessels.

At length the appearance of land changed their despondency to the most exulting rapture. It was an island, abounding with inhabitants, both sexes of which were quite naked; their manners kind, gentle, and unsuspecting. Columbus named it San Salvador: it is one of the cluster which bears the general name of Bahama; it was only 3 degrees 30 min. latitude to the S. of the island of Gomora, one of the Canaries, whence he took his departure. This navigator was still so confirmed in the opinion which he had formed before he undertook the voyage, that he believed himself to be then

upon an island which was situated adjacent to the Indies. Proceeding to the S. he saw three other islands, which he named St. Mary of the Conception, Ferdinand, and Isabella. At length he arrived at a very large island; and as he had taken seven of the natives of San Salvador on board, he learned from them that it was called Cuba: but he gave it the name of Juanna. He next proceeded to an island which he called Espagniola, in honour of the kingdom by which he was employed; and it still bears the name of Hispaniola. Here he built a fort, and formed a small settlement. He then returned home, having on board some of the natives, whom he had taken from the different islands. Steering a more southern course, he fell in with some of the Caribbee islands; and arrived at the port of Palos on the 15th of March 1493, having been seven months and eleven days on this most important voyage.

On his arrival, letters patent were issued by the king and queen, confirming to Columbus and to his heirs, all the privileges contained in a capitulation which had been executed before his departure; and his family was ennobled.

Not only the Spaniards, but the other nations of Europe, seem to have adopted the opinion of Columbus, in considering the countries which he had discovered as a part of India; whence Ferdinand and Isabella gave them the name of "Indies," in the ratification of the former agreement with Columbus. Even after the error was detected, the name was retained, and the appellation of "West Indies," is now given by all Europe to this country, and that of the Indians to the inhabitants. That the East Indies might be reached by a western course, was proved not long after by Magellan; the only error, therefore, imputable to Columbus, is his supposing them so near to Europe in that direction, which implies that he had no accurate idea of the circumference of the globe; as such an opinion was founded entirely on its spherical form. It is indeed remarkable, how many of the conjectures which have been made, and opinions formed, by the most intelligent and enlightened of mankind, in all ages, respecting the globe, have been found to be erroneous, when experiment has substituted fact for opinion. A striking instance is in the supposed existence of a terra Australis incognita, which, when investigated by captain Cook, vanished like the baseless fabric of a vision. The opinion of a northern passage to the East Indies, whether by an eastern or a western course, was no less believed, and is now no less confuted; for, although it seems highly probable, that no land lies in the high northern latitudes, yet a barrier equally impenetrable is formed by the immense expanse of ice which ever occupies the polar regions. But to return:

Nothing could possibly tend more effectually to rouse every active principle in human nature, than the discoveries which Columbus had made; no time was therefore lost, nor expense spared, in preparing a fleet of ships, with which this great man should revisit the countries he had made known. Seventeen ships were got ready in six months; and 1500 persons embarked on board them, among whom were many of noble families, and who had filled honourable stations. These engaged in the enterprise, from the expectation that the new-discovered country was either the Cipango of Marco Paulo, or the Ophir from which Solomon obtained his gold and precious merchandise.

Columbus set sail on his second voyage from the port of Cadiz, Sep. 25, 1493.—When he arrived at *Esparniola*, he had the affliction to find, that all the Spaniards whom he had left there, amounting to thirty-six in number, had been put to death by the natives, in revenge for the insults and outrages which they had committed. After having traced out the plan of a town in a large plain, near a spacious bay, and giving it the name of *Isabella* in honour of his patroness, the queen of Castile, and appointed his brother Don Diego, to preside as a deputy governor in his absence, Columbus, on the 24th of April 1494, sailed with one ship and two small barks, to make further discoveries in those seas. In this voyage he was employed five months, and fell in with many small islands on the coast of Cuba; but with nothing of any importance, except the island of *Jamaica*.

Soon after his return to *Hispaniola*, he resolved to make war upon the Indians, who, according to the Spanish historians, amounted to 100,000 men; these having experienced every lawless act of violence from their invaders, were rendered extremely inveterate, and thirsted for revenge; a disposition which appears to have been foreign to their natures. Having collected his full force, he attacked them by night, whilst they were assembled in a wide plain, and obtained a most decisive victory, without the loss of one man on his part. Beside the effect of cannon and fire arms, the noise of which was appalling, and their effect against a numerous body of Indians closely drawn together, in the highest degree destructive, Columbus had brought over with him a small body of cavalry. The Indians, who had never before seen such a creature, imagined the Spanish horses to be rational beings, and that each with his rider formed but one animal: they were astonished at their speed, and considered their impetuosity and strength as irresistible. In this onset they had beside another formidable enemy to terrify and destroy them: a great number of the largest and fiercest species of dogs which were then bred in Europe, had been brought hither, which, set on by their masters, rushed upon the Indians with the fierceness of savage beasts, and wherever they came, the miserable natives threw down their weapons, without attempting resistance, and fled with all the speed which terror could excite. Numbers were slain, and more made prisoners, who were immediately consigned to slavery. Dr. Robertson says, upon the authority of a manuscript in his possession, that five hundred of these captives were sent (or rather brought by Columbus) to Spain, and sold publicly at *Seville* as slaves.

The character of Columbus stands very high in the estimation of mankind; he is venerated not only as a man possessing superior fortitude, and such a steady perseverance as no impediments, dangers, or sufferings could shake, but as equally distinguished for piety and virtue. His second son Ferdinand, who wrote the life of his father, apologizes for this severity toward the natives, on account of the distressed state into which the colony was brought: the change of climate, and the indispensable labours which were required of men unaccustomed to any exertions, had swept away great numbers of the new settlers, and the survivors were declining daily; whilst such was the irreconcilable enmity of the natives, that the most kind and circumspect conduct on the part of the Spaniards would

not have been effectual to regain their good will. This apology seems to have been generally admitted; for all modern writers have bestowed upon the discoverer of the new world, the warmest commendation, unmixed with censure. It is an unpleasant task, to derogate from exalted merit, and to impute a deliberate plan of cruelty and extirpation to a man revered for moral worth: but altho' a pert affectation of novel opinions can only originate in weak minds and can only be countenanced by such, yet a free and unreserved scrutiny into facts can alone separate truth from error, and apportion the just and intrinsic degree of merit belonging to any character.—That Columbus had formed a design of waging offensive war against the Indians, and reducing them to slavery, before he entered on his second voyage, and, consequently, before he was apprised of the destruction of the people whom he had left upon the island of Hispaniola, may be inferred from his providing himself with such a number of fierce and powerful dogs. Having found the natives peaceable and well disposed, he had no reason to apprehend that they would commence unprovoked hostilities; the cavalry which he took over, while it tended to impress those people with the deepest awe and veneration, was fully sufficient for the security of the new colony, if the friendship of the natives had been sincerely meant to be cultivated by a kind and equitable deportment; but to treat them as a free people was inconsistent with the views which led to planting a colony: for as the grand incentive to undertake these distant voyages was the hope of acquiring gold, so, as Columbus had seen some worn as ornaments by the natives, and had been informed that the mountainous parts of the country yielded that precious metal, he had excited expectations in his employers, and in the nation at large, which both his interest and ambition compelled him as far as possible to realise. The Spaniards could not obtain gold without the assistance of the natives; and these were so constitutionally indolent, that no allurements of presents or gratifications could excite them to labour.—To rescue himself, therefore, from disgrace, and to secure future support, he seems deliberately to have devoted a harmless race of men to slaughter or slavery. Such as survived the massacre of that dreadful day, and preserved their freedom, fled into the mountainous and inaccessible parts of the island, which, not yielding them sufficient means of subsistence, they were compelled to obtain a portion of food from their cruel pursuers, by procuring gold dust, in order to support life; a tribute being imposed upon them, which was most rigorously exacted. These wretched remains of a free people, thus driven from fruitfulness and amenity, compelled to labour for the support of life, a prey to despondency, which the recollection of their former happiness sharpened, and which their hopeless situation rendered insupportable, died in great numbers, the innocent but unrevengeed victims of European avarice. Such are the facts which have ever been admitted; yet strange contradiction! Columbus is celebrated for his humanity and goodness: but should he not rather be considered as a most consummate dissembler, professing moderation, whilst he meditated subversion? and, like most of the heroes and conquerors whom history records, renouncing every principle of justice and humanity, when they stopped the career of his ambition? Ferdinand Columbus, his son and biographer, has with great

address covered the shame of his father, while the admiring world has been little disposed to censure a man, the splendor of whose actions so powerfully fascinates and dazzles.

Observations on the utility of sowing grass seeds, particularly clover, on lands that have been in tillage. Addressed to and published by the Philadelphia Society for promoting agriculture.

IMPROVEMENTS of every kind, must be beneficial in any country, and introducing an advantageous practice will prove eminently so in a young one. Upon this account, I am led to intrude a few observations to the Society for promoting agriculture, wishing they may think them deserving that attention the subject merits.

The great essentials in agriculture are, frugality and industry, manure, breaking up land, and laying it down properly.

Breaking up land is perfectly understood by all American farmers, I may say to an extreme degree; which must be counteracted by obtaining the art of laying down land with artificial grass seed; otherwise the arable lands, in the lower counties of Pennsylvania, will in a very few years become of little value.

Laying down lands properly being an object of the greatest importance in the great scale of agriculture, it is incumbent on you to impress the necessity there is, that this art should not only be understood, but practised by all farmers, rich or poor, let their soil be clay, loam, land, or any mixture whatever.

The earth, like the animal body, is capable of supporting a certain degree of labour, and, like it, requires proportionable nutriment, rest, and cleanliness; but withhold from the land those necessary reliefs, and like a starved, over-worked, neglected slave, it will be exhausted and worn out; which, instead of making profit to the owner, and benefit to the state, will impoverish the one, and disgrace the other.

The state of Pennsylvania affords a soil well suited to produce artificial grass from seed, and this is the means by which the land shall receive that proportion of rest which is absolutely requisite, and at the same time yield a crop, profitable to the farmer, and beneficial to the citizens, from the extraordinary produce it will yield for market.

You announce to the world your wish to promote agriculture: This has stimulated me to address you, to recommend and encourage this maxim, *break up and lay down land often*; for unless this is more generally adopted, and carried into practice, I will venture to declare a system of agriculture cannot be perfect in America. Sow clover seed every two or three years, then let the land lay one or two years, and up with it again. It is not my intention to point out the mode of cropping land successively, nor to say which is the best way to sow clover seed; but being convinced the high price of this invaluable seed, and the variableness of our seasons, discourage many, and put it out of the power of a greater number to purchase it, it is therefore my humble opinion, that the legislature ought to be applied to, and requested to allow such a bounty on clover seed as would infallibly promote the growth of a sufficient quantity, and at the same time reduce the price to about sixpence per pound. I must leave it to the Society to press the conse-

quences of these facts, for they are deserving your notice, and the full countenance of every legislature. And I will boldly assert it will prove of more real benefit to agriculture and stock, in the present state of our country, than any other single thing that can be done. Reduce the price of clover seed, and instead of bare fields, daily washing away, you will see them covered with grass and cattle.

In the spring, 1785, I sowed eighty pounds of clover seed on thirty-five acres of thin green wheat, the success fully justifies the foregoing observations.

EXPERIMENT IN SOWING PEAS.

IT is a well known fact, that plants growing on dry and warm land, produce ripe seed earlier than other plants of the same species, growing on land which is moist and cold. The English writers on husbandry mention two kinds of barley, common and rath-ripe; but they say, that the latter, which ripens earlier than the former, acquires that quality only by being sown, during several successive years, on high and dry grounds, particularly their children lands; and that rath-ripe barley, by being sown on the low, rich vallies, will, in a course of years, be changed into common barley.

These facts may explain the event of the following experiment in gardening, which may be extended to a variety of plants, and with the highest probability of success.

One year, on the 10th of July, I sowed some beds of early Charlton peas. The soil was but moderately fertile, and rather dry than otherwise. The peas soon sprang up; but the hot and dry weather which followed, from the middle of July to the middle of August, checked the growth of the vines, which rose only to the height of from twenty to twenty-four inches: although a parcel of the same Charlton peas, sown early in the spring, produced vines of five and six feet in height. On the 26th of July I stuck them, as the tendrils began to curl. August 2d. many were in blossom. September 7th, the vines were dry, and the peas perfectly ripe. The pods were short, having only three and four peas in each; but these were fair and large, as the English ones from which they were produced. The crop was small, as may be collected from the circumstances already related; being, in fact, only double in quantity to the seed sown.

In the following spring, I sowed the abovementioned produce; and at the same time, and in the like ground adjacent, I sowed what remained of the original parcel of English peas. The former produced full green pods, fit for gathering, two or three days earlier than the latter.

From this experiment, compared with the observations of the English writers, relative to rath-ripe and common barley, I draw the following conclusion; that a power of producing earlier fruit, in the same climate may be given to all plants, the seeds of which can be sown, and produce ripe seeds, during the heat of summer; and that by sowing the seeds thus produced, several years successively, and only during the heat of summer, this power may be annually increased to a certain degree.

My motive for sowing late, was to obtain some good peas, free from bugs. In this I was not disappointed: for, excepting in three or four peas, no sign of a bug appeared. These three or four were remarkable: they were hollow, and exactly resembled peas in which the bugs had grown to maturity, and escaped. And 'tis undoubtedly true, that, in these, eggs had been laid and hatched, and the bug had flown; all which must have happened in the space of about thirty days; the vines having blossomed on the 2d of August, and the dry peas having been gathered on the 7th of September.



MULATTOES OF ST. DOMINGO,

ARE the motley breed of land-holders, gentlemen adventurers, parsimonious merchants, factors, clerks, managers, and plantation overseers from Europe. The progenitors of this yellow tribe were generally persons who came out from France, and other parts of Europe, to make fortunes rapidly, return, and spend them under their native skies. During their stay in this delightful island, the pursuits of avarice were not sufficiently powerful to restrain them wholly from more natural pursuits. No immediate objects of gratification presented, but the enslaved African female, who was therefore adopted *vice sponsa*; and while she planted canes on the mountain, or tended a herd of goats in the valley, contributed to people the island with a progeny, who were neither European nor African, and felt no attachment to either, further than interest or the more immediate prospects of advantage dictated.

Natural affection had still some influence where united parental fondness had been rendered extremely weak from the unequal condition of the progenitors. The mulattoes were generally excused from the labours of the field; they were house-keepers, and clerks; they were house-boys and poultry-men; they were waiters at table and taverns; they were fishermen, cooks, and turnspits; they were even bound out to mercantile trades, and in general were every thing, in the line of domestic employment, except field slaves, who are reckoned the most degraded class in the islands, and absolutely placed upon a level with the mules that turn the cattle mills.

Many of these mulattoes, of promising parts, had an education bestowed on them by no means despicable. They could read and write, and had some acquaintance with figures. Education always engenders discontent, where there is not universal equality of condition. In consequence of acquired knowledge, they have for half a century past been aspiring to equal privileges with the whites; and we have seen, within these two years, that rather than not enjoy them, they allied themselves to the blacks, whom they heretofore held in contempt, and have carried fire and sword through the territories of the white inhabitants.

There is every reason to suppose, from the present example of their enormities, that the future condition of the mulattoes in the islands will be changed for the worse; as every European government will, find its interest in restricting them (especially if a general prohibition of the slave trade should take place) to a situation

that will not afford the same opportunities as heretofore, for exciting and aiding the insurrection of the blacks, or corresponding with the Spaniards.

Perhaps such a step (the equalizing the condition of the mulattoes and negroes) might be attended with some advantages. The islands have not hitherto been considered as fixed and ultimate places of residence for the generality of the whites. It was only (as observed above) to make a fortune in a few years and away, that they seem to have failed thither at all, and if they retained real estates, for the most part they enjoyed the revenues in Europe. This conduct has ever been encouraged by the colonizing countries in Europe, as it secured colonial dependence. When once the colonial whites begin to consider the West Indies as their only proper home, a legitimate offspring of their own grade will ensue, who may in time, as has happened on this continent, render some of the insular governments independent of European supremacy; and grant those natural rights of man to the negroes and mulattoes, which they will in vain look for from the justice, the humanity, or the philosophy of Europe.

ON THE USE OF FRUIT.

MR. PRINTER,

A friend of mine, who was anxious to guard, as far as human prudence could effect it, against the destructive diseases, which every year in August, carry off so many children, requested of an eminent and experienced physician, some plain practical directions for his own use. Finding them such as were within the reach and comprehension of the industrious and laborious part of the community, I hand them to you for publication. B. C.

YOU request I would reduce to writing some thoughts I have, in a private conversation, mentioned to you respecting the effects of ripe fruits in their season, upon the human frame. Convinced of their safety and real utility, I have never failed to recommend them even in those cases wherein they have been supposed to do harm.

Children have, formerly at least, been restrained and forbidden their use, as productive of fluxes and other complaints incident to their age. Rough, austere, and unripe fruits are justly charged with being very unwholesome. But when quite ripe, they become meliorated, and assume a totally different quality. They are easy of digestion, friendly to the stomach and bowels, and ranked among the most delicious cordials. From their aperient and saponaceous quality, they temperate the bile and any acid humour in the first passages, and gently evacuate them; and by these means become the best preservative against dysenteries, which from an erroneous opinion, they have been charged with being the cause of.

From a full persuasion of their good effects, I have always permitted their use in this complaint and in putrid fevers with the happiest effects; and once obtained the most speedy relief to an elderly man, at Newark, in the last stage of an acute and putrid dysentery, by a free indulgence of ripe peaches, which he had been asking and longing for, and which, from the timidity of his friends,

had been denied him. Upon my permission, he ate them with eagerness and avidity, and in plenty; and from that time, all his painful and dangerous symptoms left him; and he recovered from a state of the most imminent danger. This is one remarkable instance, among others, of the safe and happy effects, of high-flavoured ripe fruits.

Upon the same principles they may be recommended in putrid and continued fevers attended with a dry tongue, ardent thirst, prostration of strength, and loss of appetite. They will be generally received under these circumstances with eagerness and gratification, and always with beneficial effects.

As I am upon this subject and know your benevolent views in this enquiry, I shall venture to suggest to you a guess at the causes of the months of July and August being so remarkably fatal to children in this climate.

It is a season when our heat is in the greatest extreme. Among the common effects of which an eruption is thrown out upon the surface of their bodies, commonly called the prickly heat. This appearance is owing to something acrid in their young and tender frames thrown out to the surface. So long as it continues and proceeds in its regular process, children are commonly preserved from any dangerous or acute distemper. But if from any accident this humour is checked or repelled, it becomes inverted upon their stomach and bowels, and produces that deadly disease called a vomiting and purging.* All families must know, that in the extreme heat of the season, children are impatient of any covering on them during the night season, and lie naked and exposed. The weather, at these seasons, will suddenly change; and the morning air, which succeeds a very hot night, become cold, damp, and sometimes stormy; which alone is capable of producing the mischiefs above mentioned.

Convinced of this danger, I have frequently cautioned my friends to provide their children with a habit made of the finest flannel, and so constructed as to involve not only their bodies, but their limbs, and secured by some means that they cannot shake them off—which covering, worn in the hottest weather, will not heat them, or be the least unpleasant.



ON THE EDUCATION OF YOUTH IN AMERICA.

From Noah Webster's essays.

THE education of youth is, in all governments, an object of the first consequence. The impressions received in early life, usually form the characters of individuals; a union of which forms the general character of a nation.

The mode of education and the arts taught to youth, have, in every nation, been adapted to its particular stage of society or local circumstances.

In the martial ages of Greece, the principal study of its legisla-

NOTE.

* These remarks are applicable to every age of life, though not so general as in children.

tors was, to acquaint the young men with the use of arms, to inspire them with an undaunted courage, and to form in the hearts of both sexes, an invincible attachment to their country. Such was the effect of their regulations for these purposes, that the very women of Sparta and Athens, would reproach their own sons, for surviving their companions who fell in the field of battle.

Among the warlike Scythians, every male was not only taught to use arms for attack and defence; but was obliged to sleep in the field, to carry heavy burdens, and to climb rocks and precipices, in order to habituate himself to hardships, fatigue, and danger.

In Persia, during the flourishing reign of the great Cyrus, the education of youth, according to Xenophon, formed a principal branch of the regulations of the empire. The young men were divided into classes, each of which had some particular duties to perform, for which they were qualified by previous instructions and exercise.

While nations are in a barbarous state, they have few wants, and consequently few arts. Their principal objects are, defence and subsistence; the education of a savage, therefore, extends little farther, than to enable him to use, with dexterity, a bow and a tomahawk.

But in the progress of manners and of arts, war ceases to be the employment of whole nations; it becomes the business of a few, who are paid for defending their country. Artificial wants multiply the number of occupations; and these require a great diversity in the mode of education. Every youth must be instructed in the business by which he is to procure subsistence. Even the civilities of behaviour, in polished society, become a science; a bow and curtesy are taught with as much care and precision, as the elements of mathematics. Education proceeds, therefore, by gradual advances from simplicity to corruption. Its first object, among rude nations, is safety; its next, utility; it afterwards extends to convenience; and among the opulent part of civilized nations, it is directed principally to show and amusement.

In despotic states, education, like religion, is made subservient to government. In some of the vast empires of Asia, children are always instructed in the occupation of their parents; thus the same arts are always continued in the same families. Such an institution cramps genius, and limits the progress of national improvement; at the same time it is an almost immovable barrier against the introduction of vice, luxury, faction, and changes in government. This is one of the principal causes, which have operated, in combining numerous millions of the human race under one form of government, and preserving national tranquillity for incredible periods of time. The empire of China, whose government was founded on the patriarchal discipline, has not suffered a revolution in laws, manners, or language, for many thousand years.

In the complicated systems of governments which are established among the civilized nations of Europe, education has less influence in forming a national character; but there is no state, in which it has not an inseparable connexion with morals, and a consequential influence upon the peace and happiness of society.

Education is a subject which has been exhausted by the ablest writers, both among the ancients and moderns. I am not vain enough

to suppose I can suggest any new ideas upon so trite a theme, as education in general; but perhaps the manner of conducting the youth in America may be capable of some improvement. Our constitutions of civil government are not yet firmly established; our national character is not yet formed; and it is an object of vast magnitude, that systems of education should be adopted and pursued, which may not only diffuse a knowledge of the sciences, but may implant in the minds of the American youth, the principles of virtue and of liberty; and inspire them with just and liberal ideas of government, and with an inviolable attachment to their own country. It now becomes every American to examine the modes of education in Europe, to see how far they are applicable in this country, and whether it is not possible to make some valuable alterations, adapted to our local and political circumstances. Let us examine the subject in two views. First, as it respects arts and sciences. Secondly, as it is connected with morals and government. In each of these articles, let us see what errors may be found, and what improvements suggested, in our present practice.

The first error that I would mention, is, a too general attention to the dead languages, with a neglect of our own.

This practice proceeds probably from the common use of the Greek and Roman tongues, before the English was brought to perfection. There was a long period of time, when these languages were almost the only repositories of science in Europe. Men, who had a taste for learning, were under a necessity of recurring to the sources, the Greek and Roman authors. These will ever be held in the highest estimation both for style and sentiment; but the most valuable of them have English translations, which, if they do not contain all the elegance, communicate all the ideas of the originals. The English language, perhaps, at this moment, is the repository of as much learning, as one half the languages of Europe. In copiousness it exceeds all modern tongues; and though inferior to the Greek and French in softness and harmony, yet it exceeds the French in variety; it almost equals the Greek and Roman in energy, and falls very little short of any language in the regularity of its construction.*

In deliberating upon any plan of instruction, we should be attentive to its future influence and probable advantages. What advantage does a merchant, a mechanic, a farmer, derive from an acquaintance with the Greek and Roman tongues? It is true, the etymology of words cannot be well understood, without a knowledge of the original languages of which ours is composed. But a very accurate knowledge of the meaning of words and of the true construction of sentences, may be obtained by the help of dictionaries and good English writers; and this is all that is necessary in the common occupations of life. But suppose there is some advantage to be derived from an acquaintance with the dead languages, will this compensate for the loss of five, or perhaps seven years of valuable time? Life is short, and every hour should be employed to good purposes. If there are no studies of more consequence to

NOTE.

* This remark is confined solely to its construction: in point of orthography, our language is intolerably irregular.

boys, than those of Latin and Greek, let these languages employ their time; for idleness is the bane of youth. But when we have an elegant and copious language of our own, with innumerable writers upon ethics, geography, history, commerce, and government; subjects immediately interesting to every man; how can a parent be justified in keeping his son several years over rules of syntax, which he forgets, when he shuts his book; or which, if remembered, can be of little or no use in any branch of business? This absurdity is the subject of common complaint; men see and feel the impropriety of the usual practice; and yet no arguments that have hitherto been used, have been sufficient to change the system; or to place an English school on a footing with a Latin one, in point of reputation.

It is not my wish to discountenance totally the study of the dead languages. On the other hand, I should urge a more close attention to them, among young men who are designed for the learned professions. The poets, the orators, the philosophers, and the historians of Greece and Rome, furnish the most excellent models of style, and the richest treasures of science. The slight attention given to a few of these authors, in our usual course of education, is rather calculated to make pedants than scholars; and the time employed in gaining superficial knowledge is really wasted.

“A little learning is a dangerous thing,

“Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.”

But my meaning is, that the dead languages are not necessary for men of business, merchants, mechanics, planters, &c. nor of utility sufficient to indemnify them for the expense of time and money which is requisite to acquire a tolerable acquaintance with the Greek and Roman authors. Merchants often have occasion for a knowledge of some foreign living language, as, the French, the Italian, the Spanish, or the German; but men, whose business is wholly domestic, have little or no use for any language but their own; much less, for languages known only in books.

(To be continued.)

Of the indigénous inhabitants of both parts of America.*

THE varieties in the human species, with respect to colour, may be reduced to three; black, white, and a medium between these, approaching to the colour of copper. This last is the complexion of the indigénous inhabitants of both parts of America. The appellation they give themselves is that of red men: an appellation which seems to be suggested by no degree of vanity, but by the simple desire of distinguishing themselves from those tribes of mankind whose colour is different. Attempts have been made to investigate the causes of the varieties in the human species: these causes have even been confidently assigned; but all the theories on this subject hitherto are frivolous and unsatisfactory. Though the influence of climate could account for the differences in colour, (which is by

NOTE.

* From *Memoires philosophiques, historiques, physiques, concernant la decouverte de l' Amerique. Par Don Ulloa.*

no means admitted) it would still be altogether insufficient to explain the diversities of features and general confirmation; circumstances not less distinctive than the different colours of the skin.

The Indians are naturally of a colour bordering upon red. Their frequent exposure to the sun and wind, changes it to their ordinary dusky hue. The temperature of the air appears to have little or no influence in this respect. There is no perceptible difference in complexion between the inhabitants of the high, and those of the low parts of Peru; yet the climates are of an extreme difference. Nay, the Indians who live as far as forty degrees and upwards south or north of the equator, are not to be distinguished, in point of colour, from those immediately under it. In general, the whole original inhabitants of the American continent resemble one another so much, that it is next to impossible to discriminate the natives of any particular region. It is of no consequence whether their climate inclines to the excess of cold or heat, the same dusky hue prevails through them all.

In fact, there are fewer varieties among the Indians of America, than among any other race of men. Among the negroes, for instance, we find some with flat noses, thick and prominent lips, and woolly hair. We find others not less black, whose features are entirely different, and their hair lank and smooth. We find yet others of a copper complexion, and not a few of a shade still more approaching to white, like that of the mulattoes.

Among the American Indians, on the contrary, there is almost no difference in point of colour. There is also a general conformation of features and person, which more or less, characterizeth them all. Their chief distinctions in these respects are a small forehead, partly covered with hair to the eyebrows, little eyes, the nose thin, pointed and bent towards the upper lip; a broad face, large ears, black, thick, and lank hair; the legs well formed, the feet small, the body thick and muscular, little or no beard on the face, and that little never extending beyond a small part of the chin and upper lip. It may easily be supposed that this general description cannot apply, in all its parts, to every individual; but all of them partake so much of it, that they may be easily distinguished even from the mulattoes, who come nearest to them in point of colour.

Whoever has seen an Indian of any one tribe, may be considered as having seen them all, so far as regards complexion, features, and shape. But the same observation will not apply with regard to stature, which varies considerably in different regions. The inhabitants of the higher parts of Peru are of a middle size; those of the lower parts, a little beyond it. But the tribes inhabiting the countries from the six-and-thirtieth degree southward, toward the capes of Florida, those also about the thirtieth degree northward along the banks of the Mississippi, bordering on Canada and New Spain, are distinguished by large stature and elegance of person. This is a variety which can be ascribed to no difference of climate, seeing the temperature varies as much, even in the different districts of Peru, as it does in those countries which are nearest to, or most distant from the equator.

The resemblance among all the American tribes is not less remarkable in respect to their genius, character, manners, and par-

ticular customs. The most distant tribes are, in these respects, as similar as though they formed but one nation.

All the Indian nations have a peculiar pleasure in painting their bodies of a red colour, with a certain species of earth. The mine of Guancavelica was formerly of no other use than to supply them with this material for dyeing their bodies; and the cinnabar extracted from it, was applied entirely to this purpose. The tribes in Louisiana and Canada have the same passion; hence minium is the commodity most in demand there.

It may seem singular, that these nations, whose natural colour is red, should affect the same colour as an artificial ornament. But it may be observed, that they do nothing in this respect but what corresponds to the practice of Europeans, who also study to heighten and display to advantage the natural red and white of their complexions. The Indians of Peru have now, indeed, abandoned the custom of painting their bodies: but it was common among them before they were conquered by the Spaniards; and it still remains the custom of all those tribes who have preserved their liberty. The northern nations of America, besides the red colour which is predominant, employ also black, white, blue and green, in painting their bodies.

The adjustment of these colours is a matter of as great consideration with the Indians of Louisiana and the vast regions extending to the north, as the ornaments of dress among the most polished nations. The business itself they call *maftacher*, and they do not fail to apply all their talents and assiduity to accomplish it in the most finished manner. It is here that their patience shines. It is, indeed, the only thing that never fails to excite them to active exertion. The operation requires five or six hours, that is a whole morning, to be completed. No lady of the greatest fashion ever consulted her mirror with more anxiety, than the Indians do, while painting their bodies. The colours are applied with the utmost accuracy and address. Upon the eyelids, precisely at the root of the eyelashes, they draw two lines as fine as the smallest thread; the same upon the lips, the openings of the nostrils, the eye-brows, and the ears; of which last they even follow all the inflections and sinuosities. As to the rest of the face, they distribute various figures, in all which, the red predominates: and the other colours are allotted so as to throw it out to the best advantage. The neck also receives its proper ornaments; a thick coat of vermillion commonly distinguishes the cheeks. The full time that has already been mentioned, is requisite for accomplishing all this with the nicety which they affect. As their first attempts do not always succeed to their wish, they efface them, and begin a-new upon a better plan. No coquette is more fastidious in her choice of ornament, none more vain when the important adjustment is finished. Their delight and self-satisfaction are then so great, that the mirror is hardly ever laid down. An Indian, *maftached* to his mind, is the vainest of all the human species. The other parts of the body are left in their natural state, and, excepting what is called a *cachecul*, they go entirely naked.

Such of them as have made themselves eminent for bravery, or other qualifications, are distinguished by figures painted on their bodies. They introduce the colours by making punctures on their

skin, and the extent of surface which this ornament covers, is proportioned to the exploits they have performed. Some paint only their arms, others both their arms and legs; others again their thighs; while those, who have attained the summit of warlike renown, have their bodies painted from their waist upwards. This is the heraldry of the Indians, the devices of which are probably more exactly adjusted to the merits of the persons who bear them, than those of more civilized countries.

Besides these ornaments, the warriors also carry plumes of feathers on their heads, their arms and ancles. These likewise are tokens of valour; and none, but such as have been thus distinguished, may wear them.

The propensity to indolence is equal among all the tribes of Indians, civilized or savage. The only employment of those who have preserved their independence, are hunting and fishing. In some districts, the women exercise a little agriculture, in raising Indian corn and pumpions, of which they form a species of aliment, by bruising them together: they also prepare the ordinary beverage in use among them, taking care, at the same time, of the children, of whom the fathers take no charge.

The female Indians, of all the conquered regions of South America, practise what is called the *ureu* (a word which among them signifies elevation.) It consists in throwing forward the hair from the crown of the head upon the brow, and cutting it round from the ears to above the eye; so that the forehead and eye-brows are entirely covered. The same custom takes place in the northern countries. The female inhabitants of both regions tie the rest of their hair behind, so exactly in the same fashion, that it might be supposed the effect of mutual imitation. This, however, being impossible, from the vast distance that separates them, it confirms the supposition of the whole of America being originally planted with one race of people.

This custom does not take place among the males. Those of the higher parts of Peru wear long and flowing hair, which they reckon a great ornament. In the lower parts of the same country, they cut it short on account of the heat of the climate, a circumstance in which they imitate the Spaniards. The inhabitants of Louisiana pluck out their hair by the root from the crown of the head forwards, in order to obtain a large forehead, otherwise denied them by nature. The rest of their hair they cut as short as possible, to prevent their enemies from seizing them by it in battle, and also to prevent them from easily getting their scalp, should they fall into their hands as prisoners.

An enemy's scalp is the greatest mark of triumph that an Indian can boast of. The operation itself is horrible. When it is performed on Europeans, who commonly wear long hair, they make an incision through the skin all round the head, and then introducing their fingers between the scalp and the skull, tear off the hair and it together. Notwithstanding the cruelty of this operation, there have been instances of persons who have survived it. When the prisoner has no hair, it is still more horrible, the operator having no proper hold.

In general, the Indians of Peru, whether civilized or savage, and those of Louisiana, are much addicted to cruelty. The only differ-

ence among the former is, that such of them as live under the restraint of law, are thereby prevented from following this natural inclination as far as it would lead them; at the same time whenever that restraint is withdrawn, their natural barbarity immediately appears.

In their exhibitions of bull-fights, for instance, their great pleasure is to rush at once, to the number of six or eight, against the animal; each of them armed with a long lance pointed with iron, with which they transfix him all at the same time. No sooner is he brought to the ground by this united assault, than they cut off the muzzle, the tail, and pieces of the thighs, which they take a pleasure in devouring, even before the creature be dead. Always prompt to engage in any act of cruelty, the eagerness and vivacity, which they display on such occasions, show how much they are delighted with them. Hence it is natural to conclude, that if the restraints of law were withdrawn, they would exercise the same cruelties towards men, that they now do towards brute animals. What is most marvellous of the whole is, that they are deliberate in all this cruelty, which seems to be neither heightened by anger, nor mitigated by compassion; but to be a cool and uniform system, from which they never deviate.

The whole race of American Indians are distinguished by thickness of skin and hardness of fibres, circumstances which probably contribute to that insensibility to bodily pain, for which they are remarkable. An instance of this insensibility occurred in an Indian who was under the necessity of submitting to be cut for the stone. This operation, in ordinary cases, seldom lasts above four or five minutes. Unfavourable circumstances in his case prolonged it to the uncommon period of twenty-seven minutes. Yet all this time the patient gave no tokens of the extreme pain commonly attending this operation: he complained only as a person does who feels some slight uneasiness. At last the stone was extracted. Two days after, he expressed a desire for food, and on the eighth day from the operation, he quitted his bed, free from pain, although the wound was not yet thoroughly closed. The same want of sensibility is observed in cases of fractures, wounds, and other accidents of a similar nature. In all these cases their cure is easily affected, and they seem to suffer less present pain than any other race of men. The skulls that have been taken up in their ancient burying grounds are of a greater thickness than that bone is commonly found, being from six to seven lines from the outer to the inner superficies. The same is remarked, as to the thickness of their skins.

It is natural to infer from hence, that their comparative insensibility to pain is owing to a coarser and stronger organization, than that of other nations. The ease with which they endure the severities of climate is another proof of this. The inhabitants of the higher parts of Peru live amidst perpetual frost and snow. Although their clothing is very slight, they support this inclement temperature without the least inconvenience. Habit, it is to be confessed, may contribute a good deal to this, but much also is to be ascribed to the compact texture of their skin, which defends them from the impression of cold through their pores.

The northern Indians resemble them in this respect: the utmost rigours of the winter season do not prevent them from fol-

towing the chace almost naked. It is true they wear a kind of woollen cloak, or sometimes the skin of a wild beast, upon their shoulders; but besides that it covers only a small part of their body, it would appear that they use it rather for ornament than warmth. In fact, they wear it indiscriminately, in the severities of winter and in the sultriest heats of summer, when neither Europeans nor negroes can suffer any but the slightest clothing. They even frequently throw aside this cloak, when they go hunting, that it may not embarrass them in traversing their forests, where they say the thorns and undergrowth would take hold of it; while on the contrary, they slide smoothly over the surface of their naked bodies. At all times they go with their heads uncovered, without suffering the least inconvenience, either from the cold or from those *coups de soleil*, which in Louisiana are so often fatal to the natives of other climates. [To be continued.]

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Description of the manners of the natives of the Arabian desert.

BY MONSIEUR PAGES.*

THE Arab is trained to hardships, and attached to the freedom of his native plains. Inured to fatigue, and careless of the conveniencies of a wealthier situation, he looks down on the effeminate pleasures of more temperate climates with scorn and contempt. Brave, proud, hospitable, enterprising, he is true to all his engagements; being constantly exposed, however, to the inroads of warlike tribes, he is prone to suspicion, and hence receives all strangers whatever with arms in his hands. The individuals of the same tribe, even of the lowest condition, being regarded by the rest of the clan in the light of brothers, any injury done to one is received and resented as an insult offered to the whole. They are extremely cautious of engaging in an affair from which blood may be expected to ensue; but are proportionably forward to action, in contempt of every danger, when they have a cause to avenge.

The Arab is unfortunate enough to imagine he has the same right to interfere with the property of another, which he, in exercising the offices of hospitality with regard to his own, resigns to a stranger; and in this sense may be said to be a robber; but in no case can he be charged nationally with the character of an assassin. From a combination of these and such virtues and prejudices seem to result the strength and union of the Arabian tribes; and were their manners a little more humanized by the influence of christian morality, I know no race of men whatever, whose character would bid fairer for happiness, or be less liable to corruption. The extreme barrenness of their deserts, which discourages the ambition, and defends them against the yoke, of a conqueror, the certainty of subsistence, and the entire exclusion of luxury, constitute their great charter to independence, and those undepraved

NOTE.

* From his travels round the world.

and simple manners, by which they have always been distinguished.

His strong attachment to freedom makes an Arab cautious of acknowledging any authority in his chief, which he cannot discover to be expedient for the good of the community; but at the same time, being frequently at war with his neighbours, he is sensible that there must be one man, in whose discretion, on such occasions, the national will ought to centre, in order that the tribe may take the field in a body, and act with proper effect against the enemy. The bulk of Arabian tribes bear the name of the primitive stock whence they are respectively descended, and have no other appellation than that of his children; hence the Arabs, by whom I was accompanied, were called Ben Halet, or the children of Halet.

They run with extraordinary swiftness, and are singularly dexterous in the management of the lance, have large bones, a deep brown complexion, persons of an ordinary stature, but lean, muscular, active, and vigorous. The Bedouins suffer their hair and beards to grow; and, indeed, among the Arabian tribes in general, the beard is remarkably full and bushy. The Arab has a large, ardent, black eye, a long face, features high and regular, and, as the result of the whole, a physiognomy particularly stern and severe. This expression, meeting with our pre-conceived notion of his character, gives him an air of great ferocity; upon a little acquaintance, however, his formidable aspect settles into something truly noble and manly.

The tribes, which frequent the middle of the desert, have locks somewhat crisped, extremely fine, and approaching the woolly hair of the negro: my own, during the short period of my travels in those regions, became more dry and delicate than usual, and receiving little nourishment from a checked perspiration, showed a disposition to assume the same frizzled and woolly appearance; an entire failure of moisture, and the excessive heat of climate, by which it was occasioned, seemed to be the principal causes of those symptoms; my blood was become extremely dry, and my complexion differed little, at last, from that of a Hindoo, or Arab. It is not my intention, however, to offer any theory relative to the strong influence the climate may be supposed to have on the external appearance of the human frame.

Having considered the Arab with much attention in his manners and principles of action, I cannot agree in the common opinion, which makes a propensity to robbery a natural ingredient in his character. I had the strongest evidence, in various situations, of the honesty and fidelity of my fellow-travellers: I saw them living as a little commonwealth, on the most friendly and sociable terms; nor, indeed, have I ever heard, that an Arab would be guilty of theft or robbery against those of his own tribe; his appetite for plunder is exerted, in concert with his clan, against entire strangers, and always within the boundaries of the deserts; in no shape whatever, will an Arab invade the property of another man in a town or cultivated country; and hence robbery in him is plainly derived from prejudice of education, a prejudice in all respects similar to that of the ancient Romans, who regarded every

tribe and race of men not in their alliance, as enemies to the republic.

The Arab pays a scrupulous regard to all his engagements with strangers; and therefore the traveller, upon making him a certain gratification, in consideration of being suffered to pass unmolested, or upon receiving the protection of any individual Arab, who, in this case, from their fraternal union, is conceived to represent the tribe, enjoys an entire exemption from the ordinary effects of Arabian prejudices to strangers. In such circumstances, a foreigner may cross the deserts with as little apprehension of injustice from the natives, as he ever entertained in travelling a high road in his native country.

That the Arab's right to his deserts is of a less perfect kind than that of other nations to the countries they respectively inhabit, is an argument that will hardly be maintained; since, if long and uninterrupted possession, according to the legal maxims of every civilized people, forms the requisites of dominion, it is evident, his claim to the deserts is much less liable to exception, than that of any prince whatever to the domains of his crown. But is there a sovereign or independent state in the world which does not vindicate an exclusive right to all the uses of its soil?—or is this a rule of jurisprudence, in which the Arab alone is excepted?—a prince destitute of authority even on his own estate, and who must patiently give way to strangers passing at discretion over his grounds? To this right of absolute dominion, however, he has never rigidly adhered; all he requires is a certain tribute or custom, proportioned to the quantity of goods or merchandise meant to be transported over the deserts; a custom, besides, which each individual in the tribe, as representing the community, has authority to exact or dispense with as he may see cause.

This title, vested in every member of the clan, is of general notoriety; and therefore intelligent travellers take care to have an Arab in their company, for a pledge of peace and security against the molestation of his tribe.

Such is the political constitution of the desert: and whoever conducts himself in conformity to it, has nothing to dread from the depredations of the natives; but if men, acting from ignorance, or in contempt of Arabian manners, shall expose themselves to be pillaged, they have no right to represent the Arabs, as a people, without distinction or enquiry, in the odious colours of robbers and banditti.

The peculiar circumstances of this country must, no doubt, often render it painful to the bodily feeling of the native; but his hardships are considerably counterbalanced by the sweets of independence, and that brotherly confidence and affection which unite him to his tribe in all its interests and pursuits.

I must own, I never felt so sensibly as here, and in the wilds of America, the charms of that invaluable liberty which is the gift of the Creator, but which in great cities and highly civilized countries is almost extinguished by the habits of luxury, and the miserable restraints of idle and artificial distinctions. A rude mantle, which he carries constantly about with him, serves to defend the Arab and his family against the oppressive heat of the sun, as well as the inconveniencies of the rain; his robe, larger in size, but in

the style of that of St. John the baptist, woven with his own hands, which never felt the edge of the scissars, and which he consequently owes to his own industry alone, is all the clothing he requires. If he looks around him, the soil, as far as he can see, is his own, while at the same time he affects neither landmark nor inclosure, but shares with his Arabian kindred the pasture of his flocks. He goes wherever he chooses, and nothing impedes his steps. But had he been born in a polished country, every joint of his body would have been cramped and embarrassed with ligaments of twenty different kinds, the acquisition of which would have cost him much pain and anxiety, while the enjoyment of them could only flatter a mind of the weakest vanity. In fine, he would have found it difficult to turn himself to the right hand or to the left, without infringing on some custom or punctilio, equally inconsistent, perhaps, with the maxims of good sense and the natural order of things.

That freedom and equality of condition enjoyed by the natives, notwithstanding the dismal aspect of their deserts, created in my mind, certain emotions of instinctive pleasure: an admonition which I consider as the voice of nature, and whence I am inclined to infer the real value and importance of those advantages. The circumstances of the Arab by no means preclude him from the enjoyment of pleasure: besides an habitual and animating sense of his independence, he drinks the milk of his cattle, and regales himself with many palatable dishes to which we are strangers: he runs and dances with great vivacity, and practises many other manly and useful exercises. His dances are sometimes gay and exhilarating; but he is more particularly addicted to such as are warlike, and have a tendency to train him for the day of battle; in these the Arab goes through various evolutions, his lance in his hand, with the most dexterous agility; dances equally in use among the Bissayan and Javanese Indians, with this difference only, that the latter are armed with the buckler as well as the lance. The dances more peculiar to the women are of two kinds, the one sprightly and gay, the other impassioned and voluptuous, the object of which is to excite certain ideas in a manner extremely expressive. As in these it is the principal requisite that the ruling sentiment be strongly marked in the eye, and the expression of the features be in harmony with the motions and attitudes of the body, it is necessary to the dancer's performing with approbation, that her imagination be highly inflamed. Of this species of dance, the Spanish fandango, and the calenda of America afford a faint representation; and it is probable the Spaniards, as well as the negroes of Guinea and Angola, borrowed it from the Arabians.



ATTACHMENT TO NATIVE COUNTRY.

IT has often been remarked by travellers, who have visited this country, that the Americans are less national than any other people; which observation is undoubtedly pretty generally true. There seems to be a natural propensity in almost every human being, to think more favourably of himself than of his neighbour; of ascribing to himself virtues and qualities the possession of which he is unwilling to allow to others; and of detracting from them

excellencies in which he is notoriously deficient, and to which he can never hope to aspire by any subsequent exertions. This inclination predominates in the mind, in proportion as the causes of it are more or less powerful, more or less numerous. It reaches not only to individuals and private societies, but extends its influence to states and nations. Thus we frequently see a foreigner so strongly prejudiced in favour of his country, from which, perhaps, he was transported for crimes that are a disgrace to humanity, as to redden with anger at a supposed aspersion against his countrymen, by whom he had been treated with the greatest contempt, which he very justly merited. That the Americans are exempt from national prejudices is far from being the truth. The inhabitants of almost every state in America are distinguished by some modes either of speech or behaviour, peculiar to themselves. The most apparent national distinctions appear to exist between the natives of the New-England states and the inhabitants of all the others, from their frequently stigmatizing each other with the satirical appellations of Cracker, Yankee, lovers of pork and molasses, bad pronouncers of their own tongue, and many other such like elegant epithets. "Particular instances ought not to justify general conclusions." Therefore that behaviour which characterises a few in any state ought not to be indiscriminately attributed to all, nor stamp their national character. To judge of a whole people by a few individuals, argues want of experience, an unacquaintance with men and manners, and a mind clouded with prejudice and absorbed in ignorance. "There are good as well as bad in all societies." If a parallel were drawn between the northern and southern states, by balancing the advantages and disadvantages on both sides with regard to the use of cant words and phrases, the scale might preponderate in favour of the former, for there the greatest attention is paid to learning, which is conspicuous in the number and diversity of excellent literary institutions established in every part.

The conversation of many of my fellow-citizens, at certain seasons especially, turns entirely on the meetings and exploits, (past, present, or to come) of the sons of St. Patrick, St. Andrew, or St. George. I could wish to observe to those who have been born in countries under the supposed patronage of any of the aforesaid right worshipful personages, but have left them to take their final residence in America, that it would better become them to acknowledge their new father St. Tammany, who is a father to them, by the same rule that "a friend in need is a friend indeed," and who is so far from the strictness of their former patrons, that he has never attempted to enforce any other rule than that "every man shall do as he pleases." But if there is any excuse for the natives of Europe, what are we to think of those, who, as well as their fathers and grandfathers before them, were born in this country, and yet have searched their pedigrees to find out which of the European saints they belong to! There is Christopher Bogberry, a pretty equal mixture of German and Irish, but perceiving that the Germans seldom frolic for their saint, and indeed hardly knew his name, he, in the dialect of his mother's family, swears he will join the sons of St. Patrick, for he has been drunk with them more *as two times arcady*. And my neighbour Jonathan Gregor, descended on both sides from the first settlers of New-England, is deter-

mined to join the sons of St. Andrew; for, "odds swamp it, as sure as snakes, it must be tarnation clever fun;" though the mixture in honest Jonathan's blood is such as would puzzle a good jockey, with all his knowledge of quarters, eighths, sixteenths, and thirty-seconds, to ascertain what proportion of it is Scottish. But enough—the countries of Europe were all peopled by emigrants, and as we are now a nation, let us not be ashamed of our name, nor the station we have taken—"Where liberty is, there should be our country;" but, if unwilling to acknowledge the country that gives us bread, we ought not, in pursuit of our origin, to stop in Europe, but proceed to Asia, whence we are descended from a pair who might have continued in the enjoyment of a paradise, had they known how to prize it when there.

Savannah, 1792.

A table of the principal restrictions, impositions and prohibitions sustained by the united states in their trade with the British dominions, and of those sustained by Great-Britain in her trade with the united states. From the seventh number of a brief examination of lord Sheffield's observations on the commerce of the united states.

GREAT-BRITAIN

PROHIBITS American vessels from entering into the ports of several parts of her dominions, viz. the West-Indies, Canada, Nova Scotia, New-Brunswic, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Hudson's bay, Honduras bay, and her East India spice market.

She imposes double light money on American vessels in most of her ports.

She prohibits the navigating, *ad libitum*, of American vessels, by native or other seamen.

She prohibits the employment of American-built ships by her own citizens in many branches of trade, upon any terms.

She charges a duty on American sail-cloth made up in the united states for British ships.

She prohibits the importation of goods from several parts of her dominions into others in American vessels, upon any terms.

THE UNITED STATES

ADMIT British vessels into all their ports, subject to a tonnage duty of 44 cents, or 24 sterling pence more than American vessels, and an addition of one tenth to the amount of the impost accruing on their cargoes.

They do not impose extra light money on British vessels in any of their ports.

They admit the navigating of British vessels by native or other seamen, *ad libitum*.

They admit the employment of British-built ships, by their own citizens, in every branch of trade, upon the terms of 44 cents extra per ton, and one tenth extra on the impost arising from their cargoes.

They do not charge a duty on British sail-cloth, made up in Great Britain for American ships.

They admit the importation of goods from any part of their dominions into another, in British vessels, on the terms of forty-four cents per ton extra on the vessel.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

She prohibits the importation of goods into Great-Britain, by American vessels, from any other country than the united states.

She prohibits the importation into Great Britain from the united states, by American vessels, of all goods not produced by the united states.

She prohibits the importation of any goods previously brought into the united states, from the said states into Great-Britain, even in British vessels.

She prohibits the exportation of several articles from Great Britain to the united states.

She lays duties of various rates upon the exportation of many articles to the united states.

She prohibits the importation of all manufactures from the united states, into her European dominions, and her colonies, unless it be some very simple preparations and decoctions, requisite to her navy, shipping, and manufactures.

She imposes very considerable duties upon some of the agricultural productions of the united states, and excludes others by duties equal to their value.

She prohibits for considerable terms of time, some of the principal agricultural productions of the united states, and others at all times.

It is understood that by treaty she grants some favours, which are not extended to the united states.

She prohibits the importation of some American articles in American ships, or any but British ships, into her European dominions.

The UNITED STATES.

They admit the importation of goods into the united states, in British vessels from every country whatever.

They do not prohibit the importation into the united states from Great-Britain, by British vessels, of any goods not produced by Great Britain.

They do not prohibit the importation of any goods previously brought into Great Britain, from that kingdom into the united states, in either British or American bottoms.

They do not prohibit the exportation of any article from the united states to Great Britain.

They do not lay a duty on the exportation of any article whatever to Great Britain.

They do not prohibit the importation of any manufacture whatever from Great Britain.

They impose moderate duties (lower than any other foreign nation by 2, 3, and 4 for one) on the produce and manufactures of Great Britain, except in a very few instances, and exclude scarcely any articles, by duties equal to their value.

They prohibit none of the agricultural productions of Great Britain or her dominions.

They treat Great Britain as favourably as any nation whatever, as to ships, imports, and exports, and in all other respects.

They do not prohibit the importation of any British article in British vessels or any but American vessels.

GREAT BRITAIN.

She does not permit an American citizen to import goods into some of her dominions, and to sell them there, even in British vessels. In other parts of her dominions she lays an extra tax on him, or his sales.

She imposes heavy duties on certain articles of the produce of the American fisheries, and insupportable duties on others, in some parts of her dominions: and in other parts, she prohibits their importation.

She prohibits the consumption of some American articles, of which she permits the importation.

She prohibits the importation of American articles from foreign countries into the British dominions, even in her own ships.

The UNITED STATES.

They permit a British citizen to import goods into all their ports, in any vessels, and to sell them there without any extra tax on him, or his sales.

They impose only five per cent. on the produce of the British fisheries (which duty is drawn back on exportation) and admit every article derived from them.

They do not prohibit the consumption of any British article whatever.

They do not prohibit the importation of British articles from foreign countries in any ships.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

Rules for changing a limited republican government into an unlimited hereditary one.

I. **I**T being necessary, in order to effect the change, to get rid of constitutional shackles, and popular prejudices, all possible means and occasions are to be used for both these purposes.

II. Nothing being more likely to prepare the vulgar mind for aristocratical ranks and hereditary powers, than TITLES, endeavour, in the outset of the government, to confer these on its most dignified officers. If the principal magistrate should happen to be particularly venerable in the eyes of the people, take advantage of that fortunate circumstance, in setting the example.

III. Should the attempt fail, through his republican aversion to it, or from the danger of alarming the people, do not abandon the enterprise altogether, but lay up the proposition in record. Time may gain it respect: and it will be there always ready cut and dried, for any favourable conjuncture that may offer.

IV. In drawing all bills, resolutions, and reports, keep constantly in view, that the limitations in the constitution are ultimately to be explained away. Precedents and phrases may thus be shuffled in, without being adverted to by candid or weak people, of which good use may afterwards be made.

V. As the novelty and bustle of inaugurating the government will for some time keep the public mind in a heedless and unsettled state, let the press, during this period, be busy in propagating the doctrines of monarchy and aristocracy. For this purpose, it will be particularly useful, to confound a mobbish democracy with a representative republic, that by exhibiting all the turbulent examples and enormities of the former, an odium may be thrown on

the character of the latter. Review all the civil contests, convulsions, factions, broils, squabbles, bickerings, black eyes and bloody noses of ancient, middle, and modern ages; caricature them into the most frightful forms and colours that can be imagined; and unfold one scene of the horrible tragedy after another, 'till the people be made, if possible, to tremble at their own shadows. Let the discourses on Davila then contrast with these pictures of terror the quiet of hereditary succession, the reverence claimed by birth and nobility, and the fascinating influence of stars, and ribands and garters; cautiously suppressing all the bloody tragedies and unceasing oppressions which form the history of this species of government. No pains should be spared, in this part of the undertaking; for the greatest will be wanted; it being extremely difficult, especially when a people have been taught to reason and feel their rights, to convince them that a king, who is always an enemy to the people, and a nobility, who are perhaps still more so, will take better care of the people than the people will take of themselves.

VI. But the grand *nostrum* will be a *public debt*, provided enough of it can be got, and it be medicated with the proper ingredients. If by good fortune a debt be ready at hand, the most is to be made of it. Stretch it and swell it, to the utmost the items will bear. Allow as many extra claims as decency will permit. Assume all the debts of your neighbours: in a word, get as much debt as can be raked and scraped together; and when you have got all you can, "advertise" for more, and have the debt made *as big as possible*. This object being accomplished, the next will be to make it *as perpetual as possible*; and the next to that, to get it into *as few hands as possible*. The more effectually to bring this about, modify the debt, complicate it, divide it, subdivide it, subtract it, postpone it; let there be one third of two thirds, and two thirds of one third, and two thirds of two thirds: let there be three per cents, and four per cents, and six per cents, and present six per cents, and future six per cents. To be brief, let the whole be such a mystery, that a *few only* can understand it; and let all possible opportunities and informations fall in the way of *these few*, to clinch their advantages over the many.

VII. It must not be forgotten, that the members of the legislative body are to have a deep stake in the game. This is an essential point, and happily is attended with no difficulty. A sufficient number, properly disposed, can alternately legislate and speculate, and speculate and legislate, and buy and sell, and sell and buy, until a due proportion of the property of their constituents has passed into their hands, to give them an interest against their constituents, and to insure the part they are to act. All this, however, must be carried on under cover of the closest secrecy; and it is particularly lucky, that dealings in paper admit of more secrecy than any other. Should a discovery take place, the whole plan may be blown up.

VIII. The ways in which a great debt, so constituted and applied, will contribute to the ultimate end in view, are both numerous and obvious. 1. The *favourite few*, thus possessed of it, whether within or without the government, will feel the staunchest fealty to it, and will go through thick and thin, to support it in all its op-

pressions and usurpations. 2. Their money will give them consequence and influence, even among those who have been tricked out of it. 3. They will be the readiest materials that can be found, for an hereditary aristocratic order, whenever matters are ripe for one. 4. A great debt will require great taxes, great taxes many tax-gatherers and other officers: and all officers are auxiliaries of power. 5. Heavy taxes may produce discontents; these may threaten resistance; and in proportion to this danger, will be the pretence for a *standing army* to repel it. 6. A standing army in its turn will increase the moral force of the government by means of its appointments, and give it physical force by means of the sword; thus doubly forwarding the main object.

IX. The management of a great funded debt and an extensive system of taxes, will afford a plea not to be neglected, for establishing a great incorporated bank. The use of such a machine is well understood. If the constitution, according to its fair meaning, should not authorise it, so much the better. Push it through by a forced meaning; and you will get, in the bargain, an admirable precedent for future misconstructions. In fashioning the bank, remember that it is to be made particularly instrumental in enriching and aggrandizing the elect few, who were to be called in due season to the honours and felicities of the *kingdom* preparing for them; and who are the pillars that must support it. It will be easy to throw the benefit entirely into their hands, and to make it a solid addition of 50, or 60, or 70 per cent. to their former capitals, of 800 per cent, or 900 per cent. without costing them a shilling; while it will be so difficult to explain to the people that this gain of the few is at the cost of the many, that the *contrary* may be boldly and safely pretended. The bank will be pregnant with other important advantages. It will admit the same men to be, at the same time, members of the bank and members of the government. The two institutions will thus be folded together, and each made the stronger. Money will be put under the direction of the government, and government under the direction of money. To crown the whole, the bank will have a proper interest in *swelling and perpetuating the public debt and public taxes*, with all the blessings of both, because its agency and its profits will be extended in exact proportion.

X. "Divide and govern" is a maxim consecrated by the experience of ages, and should be as familiar in its use to every politician, as the knife he carries in his pocket. In the work here to be executed, the best effects may be produced by this maxim, and with peculiar facility. An extensive republic made up of lesser republics, necessarily contains various sorts of people, distinguished by local and other interests and prejudices. Let the whole groupe be well examined in all its parts and relations, geographical and political, metapysical and metaphorical; let there be, first, a northern and a southern section by a line running east and west, and then an eastern and western section, by a line running north and south. By a suitable nomenclature, the landholders cultivating different articles can be discriminated from one another, all from the class of merchants, and both from that of manufacturers. One of the subordinate republics may be represented as a commercial state, another as a navigation state, another as a manufacturing state, others as agricultural

states; and although the great body of the people in each be really agricultural, and the other characters be more or less common to all, still it will be politic to take advantage of such an arrangement. Should the members of the great republic be of different sizes, and subject to little jealousies on that account, another important division will be ready formed to your hand. Add again the divisions that may be carved out of *personal interests*, political opinions, and local parties.—With so convenient an assortment of votes, especially with the help of the *marked ones*, a majority may be packed for any question with as much ease as the odd trick by an adroit gamester, and any measure whatever be carried or defeated, as the great revolution to be brought about, may require. It is only necessary, therefore, to recommend that full use be made of the resource: and to remark, that, besides the direct benefit to be drawn from these artificial divisions, they will tend to smother the true and natural one, existing in all societies, between the few who are always impatient of political equality, and the many who can never rise above it; between those who are to mount to the prerogatives, and those who are to be saddled with the burdens, of the hereditary government to be introduced; in one word, between the general mass of the people, attached to their republican government and republican interests, and the chosen band devoted to monarchy and mammon. It is of infinite importance, that this distinction should be kept out of sight. The success of the project absolutely requires it.

XI. As soon as sufficient progress in the intended change shall have been made, and the public mind duly prepared, according to the rules already laid down, it will be proper to venture on another and a bolder step, towards a removal of the constitutional land-marks. Here the aid of the former encroachments, and all the other precedents and way-paving manoeuvres will be called in of course. But, in order to render success the more certain, it will be of special moment to give the most plausible and popular name that can be found, to the power that is to be usurped. It may be called, for example, a power for the common safety or the public good, or, “the general welfare.” If the people should not be too much enlightened, the name will have a most imposing effect. It will escape attention, that it means, in fact, the same thing, with a power to do any thing the government pleases “in all cases whatsoever.” To oppose the power may consequently seem to the ignorant, and be called by the artful, opposing the “general welfare,” and may be cried down under that deception. As the people, however, may not run so readily into the snare as might be wished, it will be prudent to bait it well with some specious popular interest, such as the encouragement of manufactures, or even of agriculture; taking due care not even to mention any unpopular object to which the power is equally applicable, such as religion, &c. &c. &c. By this contrivance, particular classes of people may possibly be taken in, who will be a valuable reinforcement. With respect to the patronage of agriculture, there is not, in deed, much to be expected from it. It will be too quickly seen through, by the owners and tillers of the soil, that to tax them with one hand and pay back a part only with the other, is a losing game on their side. From the power over manufactures more is to

be hoped. It will not be so easily perceived, that the premium bestowed may not be equal to the circuitous tax on consumption which pays it. There are particular reasons, too, for pushing the experiment on this class of citizens. 1. As they live in towns, and can act together, it is of vast consequence to gain them over to the interest of monarchy. 2. If the power over them be once established, the government can grant favours or monopolies as it pleases; can raise or depress this or that place as it pleases, can gratify this or that individual as it pleases; in a word, by creating a dependence in so numerous and important a class of citizens, it will increase its own independence of every class, and be more free to pursue the grand object in contemplation. 3. The expense of this operation will not in the end cost the government a shilling; for the moment any branch of manufacture has been brought to a state of tolerable maturity, the *exciseman* will be ready with his constable and his search-warrant to demand a reimbursement, and as much more as can be squeezed out of the article. All this, it is to be remembered, supposes that the manufacturers will be weak enough to be cheated, in some respects, out of their own *interests*, and wicked enough, in others, to betray *those* of their fellow citizens; a supposition that, if known, would totally mar the experiment. Great care, therefore, must be taken to prevent it from leaking out.

XII. The expediency of seizing every occasion of external danger for augmenting and perpetuating the standing military force, is too obvious to elude. So important is this matter, that for any loss or disaster whatever attending the national arms, there will be ample consolation and compensation in the opportunity for enlarging the establishment. A military defeat will become a political victory; and the loss of a little vulgar blood contribute to ennoble that which flows in the veins of our future dukes and marquises.

XIII. The same prudence will improve the opportunity afforded by an increase of military expenditures, for perpetuating the taxes required for them. If the inconsistency and absurdity of establishing a *perpetual* tax for a temporary service, should produce any difficulty in the business, *Rule 10* must be resorted to. Throw in as many extraneous motives as will make up a majority, and the thing is effected in an instant. What was before evil will become good, as easily as black could be made white by the same magical operation.

XIV. Throughout this great undertaking, it will be wise to have some particular model constantly in view. The work can then be carried on more systematically, and every measure be fortified, in the progress, by apt illustrations and authorities. Should there exist a particular monarchy, against which there are fewer prejudices than against any other—should it contain a mixture of the representative principle, so as to present on one side the semblance of a republican aspect; should it, moreover, have a great, funded, complicated, irredeemable debt, with all the apparatus and appurtenances of excises, banks, &c. &c. &c. upon that a steady eye is to be kept. In all cases it will assist; and in most its statute-book will furnish a precise pattern by which there may be cut out any monied or monarchical project that may be wanted.

XV. As it is not to be expected, that the change of a republic into a monarchy, with the rapidity desired, can be carried through

without occasional suspicions and alarms, it will be necessary to be prepared for such events. The best general rule on the subject is to be taken from the example of crying "stop thief" first.—Neither lungs nor pens must be spared, in charging every man who whispers, or even thinks that the revolution on foot is meditated, with being himself an enemy to the established government, and meaning to overturn it. Let the charge be reiterated and reverberated, till at last such confusion and uncertainty be produced, that the people being not able to find out where the truth lies, withdraw their attention from the contest.

Many other rules of great wisdom and efficacy, might be added: but it is conceived that the above will be abundantly enough for the purpose. This will certainly be the case, if the people can be either kept asleep, so as not to discover, or be thrown into artificial divisions, so as not to resist what is silently going forward.—Should it be found impossible, however, to prevent the people from awaking and uniting—should all artificial distinctions give way to the natural division between the lordly-minded few and the well-disposed many—should all who have common interest make a common cause, and show an inflexible attachment to republicanism, in opposition to a government of monarchy and of money; why then * * * *—

Philad. July 7, 1792.

Abstract of goods, wares, and merchandise, exported from the united states, from the 1st of October 1790, to the 31st of September 1791.

| | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|-------|--------|---------|-----------------------|----------------|------------|---------|
| Africs. | { | POT | tons | 869 | Cotton | bales | } | 493 |
| | | | bbls. | 13,622 | | bags, | | |
| Pearl | { | | tons | 1,598 | Coffee, | lbs. | } | 326,281 |
| | | | bbls. | 8,360 | | hhds. | | |
| Apples | | | bbls. | 12,352 | | bbls. | | 527 |
| Bricks | | numb. | | 737,764 | | bags | | 331 |
| Smiths' bellows | | do. | | 4 | hhds. tierces, | bbls. | | |
| Boats | | do. | | 99 | and bags | | | 1,360 |
| Beer, ale, and por- | | | | | hhds. casks, barrels, | | | |
| ter | | gals. | 37,008 | | and bags, | | | 1,846 |
| casks, tierces, & | | bbls. | 185 | | Cocoa | lbs. | | 8,322 |
| | | casks | 29 | | Chocolate | boxes | | 479 |
| bottled, | | doz. | 140 | | Candl. { | Myrtle | do. | 348 |
| | | casks | 29 | | | Wax | do. | 185 |
| | | pairs | 482 | | | Tallow | do. | 2,745 |
| Boots, | | | | | Cables & cordage | tons | | 48 |
| Boot legs | | do. | 17 | | | cwt. | | 52 |
| Brimstone | | lbs. | 3,280 | | | qrs. | | 2 |
| Blacking or lamp- | | | | | | coils | | 749 |
| black | | kegs | 170 | | Cables | | | 15 |
| | | box | 1 | | Copper { | Ore | per 112lb. | 20 |
| hhds. and bbls. | | | 4 | | | Pig | do. | 216 |
| casks | | | 62 | | | Sheet, bottoms | do. | 296 |
| | | lbs. | 582 | | | Manufactur'd | lbs. | 1,480 |
| Cider | | bbls. | 1,711 | | Coals | bushels | | 3,788 |
| | | doz. | 352 | | Cranberries | do. | | 720 |
| Chalk | | tons | 10 | | | | | |
| Cotton | | lbs. | 66,056 | | | | | |

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|--------------------------|--|--------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Corks | groce | 300 | Glass | Ware | crates | 21 |
| Corn fans | numb. | 1 | | Window | boxes | 91 |
| Canes and walking sticks | do. | 598 | Groceries | Cassia and cin. | | |
| Carriage | Coaches, chariots, phaetons, chaises &c. | numb. | | namon | lbs. | 1,178 |
| | Waggons, carts do. | 25 | | Cloves & mace | do. | 900 |
| Cards, cotton and wool, | doz. | 25 | | Pimento | do. | 5,551 |
| | American bolts, | 478 | | hhds. tierces, bbls. and bags | | 1,139 |
| Drugs and Duck medicines | Russia | do. | | Pepper | lbs. | 492 |
| | Glaub. salts | lbs. | | Brown sugar | do. | 3,904 |
| | Pink, snake, and salisfras | do. | | bbls. and boxes | | 228 |
| | Sassa. bark | tons | | Loaf sugar | lbs. | 600 |
| Do. wood or root, | do. | 34 | Grain and pulle | | bbl. | 1 |
| | yel. or queens | crates | | Other sugar | lbs. | 1,200 |
| Ware, earth. | Stone, | doz. | | Raisins | do. | 400 |
| Flaxseed, | hhds. | 58,492 | | Wheat | busbels | 1,018,339 |
| Flax, | lbs. | 18,600 | | Rye | do. | 36,737 |
| Feathers, | do. | 900 | | Barley | do. | 35 |
| Flints, | numb. | 40,000 | | Indian corn | do. | 1,718,241 |
| Frames of | Vessels | do. | | Oats | do. | 116,634 |
| | Scows | do. | | Buckwheat | do. | 14,499 |
| | Boats | do. | | Peas and beans | do. | 165,273 |
| | Houses, | do. | | Horns and horntips | no. | 119,776 |
| Furniture, house | Windows and doors | do. | Iron wrought | Hides raw | do. | 704 |
| | Tables | numb. | | Hats | do. | 435 |
| | Bedsteads | do. | | Honey | gals. | 1,740 |
| | Desks | do. | | Hops | lbs. | 650 |
| | Bureaus | do. | | Hemp | do. | 1,544 |
| | Sophas and settees | do. | | Hay | tons | 2,006 |
| | Clocks | do. | | Axes | numb. | 979 |
| | Clock-cases | do. | | Hoes | do. | 200 |
| | Chests | do. | | Draw. knives | do. | 24 |
| | Windfor and rush chairs | do. | | Scythes | do. | 48 |
| Fisheries | Fish dried, quint. | per 112 lbs. | Iron castings | Locks & bolts | do. | 2,000 |
| | Do. pickled | bbls. | | Shovels | do. | 261 |
| | Oil whale | gals. | | Skimmers and ladles | pr. | 15 |
| | Oil spermac. | do. | | Anchors | numb. | 175 |
| | Sper. candles | boxes | | Grappals | do. | 18 |
| Ginseng | Whalebone | lbs. | | Muskets | do. | 160 |
| | Do. | lbs. | | Cutlasses | do. | 72 |
| | Do. | lbs. | | Knives & forks | do. | 240 |
| | Do. | lbs. | | Chests of carpenters' tools | do. | 4 |
| | Do. | lbs. | | Waggon boxes | do. | 100 |
| Grindstones | Do. | numb. | | Pots, kettles & other castings | do. | 808 |
| | Do. | numb. | | Cannon | do. | 37 |
| | | | | Swivels | do. | 8 |
| | | | | Shot for cannon | do. | 1,000 |
| | | | | Iron pig | tons | 4,178 |

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|--|-----------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Iron | Bar | tons | 360 |
| | Nail-rods | do. | 8 |
| | Hoops | do. | 16 |
| Indigo | lbs. | | 15,857 |
| | kegs, casks, bbls. boxes and bags | | 2,203 |
| Leather tanned and dressed | lbs. | | 1,725 |
| | skins | | 134 |
| Leather tanned and dressed | bund. | | 12 |
| Lime | bush. | | 1,320 |
| Lead | Sheet | tons | 45 |
| | Pig | do. | 16 |
| Live stock | | cwt. | 10 |
| | Shot | lbs. | 6,473 |
| | Horned cattle | no. | 4,627 |
| | Horses | do. | 6,975 |
| | Mules | do. | 444 |
| | Sheep | do. | 10,377 |
| | Deer | do. | 4 |
| | Hogs | do. | 16,803 |
| | Poultry, | doz. | 10,217 |
| Merchandise or dry goods, foreign, pack. | | | |
| | | | 1,439 |
| Metals | gals. | | 12,721 |
| Mill stones | numb. | | 2 |
| Mustard | lbs. | | 780 |
| Madder | do. | | 1,034 |
| Nails | do. | | 130,293 |
| Negro slaves | numb. | | 24 |
| Nankeens no. of pieces | | | 7,070 |
| Nuts | bush. | | 1,240 |
| Nav. stores | Pitch | bbls. | 3,818 |
| | Tar | do. | 51,044 |
| | Resin | do. | 228 |
| | Turpentine | do. | 58,107 |
| | Spirits of do. | gals. | 1,172 |
| Oil, linseed | do. | | 90 |
| Porcelain or china | box. | | 2 |
| Powder, gun | lbs. | | 25,854 |
| Powder, hair | do. | | 1,276 |
| Pomatum | do. | | 45 |
| Paints | do. | | 896 |
| | kegs | | 313 |
| Pipes | box | | 1 |
| Printing presses | num. | | 4 |
| Plaster of Paris | tons | | 4 |
| Provi. | Rice | tierces | 95,305 |
| | Flour | barrels | 619,681 |
| | Ship stuff | do. | 6,484 |

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|------------|----------------|---------|---------|
| Provisions | Rye meal | do. | 24,062 |
| | Indian meal | do. | 70,339 |
| | Buckw. meal | do. | 422 |
| | Oat meal | do. | 6 |
| | Bread | do. | 74,211 |
| | Beef | do. | 62,371 |
| | Pork | do. | 26,635 |
| | Crackers | kegs | 25,428 |
| | Hams & bacon | lbs. | 295,647 |
| | Venison & mut- | | |
| | ton hams | do. | 600 |
| | Cheese | do. | 120,901 |
| | Lard | do. | 522,715 |
| | Butter | firkins | 16,670 |
| | Sausages | lbs. | 250 |
| Reeds | Fresh beef | do. | 92,269 |
| | Fresh pork | do. | 29,334 |
| | Carcares mut. | no. | 561 |
| | Neats tongues | bbls. | 160 |
| | Oysters pick. | kegs | 1,228 |
| | Potatoes | bush. | 22,263 |
| | Onions | do. | 42,420 |
| | Reeds | numb. | 15,450 |
| | Rum Amer. | gals. | 513,234 |
| | Do. W. India | do. | 4,742 |
| | Brandy | do. | 158 |
| | Brandy peach | do. | 753 |
| | Gin | do. | 10,252 |
| | | cafes | 3,817 |
| | | jugs | 2,039 |
| Spirits | | cafes | 69 |
| | Cordials | cafes | |
| | Saddles and | | |
| | bridles | numb. | 816 |
| | Carriage har- | | |
| | ness | sets | 82 |
| | Shoes | pairs | 7,046 |
| | Soap | boxes | 691 |
| | Sago | lbs. | 2,382 |
| | Starch | do. | 160 |
| | Snuff | do. | 15,689 |
| | Steel | bundles | 747 |
| | | tons | 46 |
| | | cwt. | 16 |
| | | qrs. | 2 |
| | | lbs. | 19 |
| Saddlery | Silk | lbs. | 153 |
| | Silver, | ounces | 103 |
| | Garden | lbs. | 1,060 |
| | Mustard | do. | 660 |
| | Hay | do. | 60 |
| Seeds. | Cotton, | bush. | 109 |

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|-----------------|---------------------|-------------|------------|---------|-------------------|-------|------------|
| Skins and furs. | Salt | bushels | 4,208 | Wood. | Boxes & brakes | do. | 56 |
| | Spruce, essence of, | cases | 94 | | Blocks | do. | 7,040 |
| | Morocco | numb. | 132 | | Oars and oar- | | |
| | Calf in hair | do. | 402 | | rafters | do. | 41,536 |
| | Deer & moose | do. | 1,063 | | Trunnels, | do. | 45,905 |
| | Seals | do. | 2,672 | | Cedar and oak | | |
| | Bears, &c. | do. | 37 | | knees, | do. | 1,067 |
| | Otters | do. | 100 | | Breast hooks | do. | 50 |
| | Deer-skins, | lbs. | 55,906 | | Carlings | do. | 13 |
| | Deer & other skins | | | | Anchor stocks | do. | 809 |
| Teas. | and furs un- | | | Timber. | Cedar posts | do. | 10,453 |
| | known, | hhds. | | | Oak boards & | | |
| | casks and pack. | | 902 | | plank | feet | 963,822 |
| | Tobacco, | hhds. | 101,272 | | Pine boards & | | |
| | Do. manufactured, | lbs. | 81,122 | | plank | do. | 37,288,928 |
| | Types | boxes | 3 | | Other boards & | | |
| | Tallow, | lbs. | 317,195 | | plank, | do. | 3,463,673 |
| | Twine | per 112 lb. | 19 | | Scantling, | do. | 6,237,496 |
| | Tow-cloth | yards | 6,850 | | Oak, pine, | | |
| | Toys for children | doz. | 112 | | &c. | do. | 2,180,137 |
| Vinegar. | Tin | boxes | 9 | Wood. | Oak, pine, | | |
| | Do. manufactured | doz. | 15 | | &c. | tons | 13,775 |
| | Bohea | chests | 17 | | Lignumvita | | |
| | Souchong | do. | 492 | | per 112 lb. | | 119,300 |
| | Green | do. | 178 | | Logwood & Ni- | | |
| | Hyson | do. | 2,285 | | caragua | do. | 105 |
| | Vinegar | gals. | 2,248 | | Mahogany, Ni- | | |
| | Varnish, | do. | 60 | | caragua and | | |
| | Madeira | do. | 76,466 | | logwood, pieces | | 3,251 |
| | Other wines | do. | 32,336 | Wax. | Oak, pine, &c. | do. | 38,680 |
| Whips. | Bottled | doz. | 6 | | Oak, pine, hi- | | |
| | Bees, | lbs. | 55,069 | | cory | cords | 499 |
| | hhds. tierces, | bls. | | | Oak bark | do. | 57 |
| | & kegs. | | 822 | | Do. do. ground, | hhds. | 1,007 |
| | Myrtle | lbs. | 2,272 | | Mast hoops, | doz. | 148 |
| | Whips | numb. | 146 | | Axe-helves | doz. | 149 |
| Wood. | Staves and hea- | | | | Truss-hoops | sets | 15 |
| | ding, | no. | 29,061,590 | | Yokes & bows | | |
| | Shingles, | do. | 74,205,976 | | for oxen | do. | 197 |
| | Shooks and | | | | Lock-stocks, | numb. | 4,000 |
| | casks, | do. | 42,329 | | Worm-tubs | do. | 6 |
| | Laths, | do. | 25,500 | | Wheel-barrows | do. | 6 |
| | Hoops and | | | | Wheels for carts | | |
| | hoop-poles | do. | 1,425,577 | | & waggons, pairs | | 25 |
| | Masts, | do. | 405 | | Spokes & fellies, | no. | 12,972 |
| | Bowspoints | do. | 42 | | Spinning-wheels, | do. | 17 |
| Wood. | Booms | do. | 74 | | Tubs, pails, &c. | doz. | 34 |
| | Spars | do. | 4,983 | | Bowls, dishes & | | |
| | Handspikes | do. | 36,714 | | platters | do. | 170 |
| | Pumps | no. | 80 | | | | |

Value of goods, wares and merchandise exported from each state.

| | Dols. | Cts. |
|-----------------------|------------|------|
| <i>New Hampshire</i> | 142,858. | 61 |
| <i>Massachusetts</i> | 2,445,975. | 53 |
| <i>Rhode Island</i> | 470,131. | 9 |
| <i>Connecticut</i> | 710,342. | 52 |
| <i>New York</i> | 2,516,197 | |
| <i>New Jersey</i> | 127,957. | 73 |
| <i>Pennsylvania</i> | 2,931,624. | 21 |
| <i>Delaware</i> | 119,840. | 60 |
| <i>Maryland</i> | 2,193,355. | 78 |
| <i>Virginia</i> | 3,131,227. | 55 |
| <i>North Carolina</i> | 524,548. | 34 |
| <i>South Carolina</i> | 1,866,021. | 63 |
| <i>Georgia</i> | 491,472. | 86 |

Dollars 17,571,551. 45

Two quarterly returns from South Carolina and some small ports are deficient.

Treasury department, April 12, 1792.

TENCH COXE, *Assistant sec'y.*

FUNDING SYSTEM, &c.

(*From the gazette of the united states.*)

THE acts of the general government, which the enemies of the public tranquillity are industriously attempting to render odious to the people, are, the act making provision for the debt of the united states—the act establishing a bank—and the excise law.—Supposing it possible to effect a change of men, is it probable that a change of measures in respect to these laws would follow?—Wise men, if honest, would pause before they would essentially alter the systems founded on those laws. The first have produced greater benefits than were anticipated; though the public expectation was high. The short-lived concussion which sprung from a temporary frenzy for speculation, was no more chargeable on these systems, than the abuse of the noblest faculties of man is an impeachment of the wisdom that formed those faculties.—This aberration from the dictates of common sense has worked its own cure—but who can describe the fatal consequences, which would result from the subversion of the existing plans; especially those respecting finance and revenue? It is of immense importance, that a steady faith in the stability of the public counsels should be supported. Let the people have fair play—let them be informed, as to the real characters of men, and they will not lightly choose those to conduct their affairs, who are given to change, and who will make alterations, that would plunge this country into scenes of distress which have not hitherto been experienced.

That change of measures which is so repeatedly adverted to, which appears to be so ardently wished for, and is so frequently and confidently anticipated, is nothing less than a subversion of the funding system!—Heaven avert such an event! It

would be laying the axe to the great pillars of our national prosperity—the commerce, agriculture, and manufactures of the country—and, what is worse than all, perhaps it would open the flood-gates of speculation, and consign us over to all the horrors of national bankruptcy and national infamy. Can those persons who attempt to unsettle the public confidence, in the stability of the most important measures of government, be either good men, or good citizens? No, they are not.

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

From the same.

THERE never was a more barefaced attempt to impose upon mankind, than is contained in the assertion so frequently made, that an aristocratic junto exists in the united states—a junto “who are using every effort to prevent the people from investigating the principles of religion and government.” By a junto, is meant the men whom the people have chosen to administer the government of the united states.

It is useful to recur to past transactions—they will often refresh our memories with advantage—and if the bronze of impudence could admit a blush on their countenances, the phizzes of certain declaimers would be suffused in crimson, who say that our civil rulers are pursuing similar measures with those adopted by the tyrants and oppressors of mankind, to keep the people in ignorance.

The president of the united states, in his speech to the first congress, strongly inculcates the importance of competent provision for enlightening and instructing the people. His words are, “there is nothing which can better deserve your patronage, than the promotion of science and literature—knowledge is, in every country, the surest basis of public happiness: in one, in which the measures of government receive their impression so immediately from the sense of the community, as in our’s, it is proportionably essential.” In the president’s speech, at the opening of the first session of the second congress, this interesting object is not forgotten—he therein states the importance of the post-office and post-roads, as they respect the expedition, safety, and facility of communication—“their instrumentality in diffusing a knowledge of the laws and proceedings of government, which, while it contributes to the security of the people, serves also to guard them against the effects of misrepresentation, and misconception.” Pursuant to this representation and recommendation, the two houses passed, and the president approved and signed, the new post-office law, which makes provision for disseminating information through the union, on a scale greatly superior to any thing ever before contemplated—this law is predicated on the most patriotic principles—it is now going into operation—and should it be found injurious to the interest it was designed to promote, the dissemination of information, it will doubtless be revised by those who have given the most irrefragable evidence that they were actuated by the best motives in passing it. Thus much for the sentiments of the chief magistrate, on the subject of diffusing light and information among the people. Let us now hear the opinion of the vice-president of the

united states, on this point. In his defence of the American constitutions he says—"schools for the education of *all* should be placed at convenient distances, and be maintained at the *public expense*. The revenues of the state would be applied infinitely better, more charitably, wisely, usefully, and therefore politically in this way, than even in maintaining the poor: this would be the best way of preventing the existence of the poor. If nations should ever be wise, instead of erecting thousands of useless offices, or engaging in unmeaning wars, they will make a fundamental maxim of this, *that no human creature shall grow up in ignorance*." If we turn our attention to the other persons concerned in the administration of the government, we shall find, that their habits, sentiments, and opinions, have uniformly been in favour of the rights of the people—in favour of universal education, universal information; for they have found by experience that all the difficulties which have attended the administration of the government, have been owing to the want of information—to the influence of the misrepresentations of those who have maligned the administration as inimical to that knowledge and intelligence on which they depend for the successful operation of public measures, and the preservation of general tranquillity and peace.

A MELANCHOLY PICTURE.

WHILST our American aristocrats are anxious to adopt the spirit and principles of the British government, they will, no doubt, think it necessary to publish the most flattering accounts of the prosperity and grandeur of that country. Some of the clergy, a few of the nobility, pensioners, and placemen enjoy every comfort and luxury, at the expense of the laborious part of the community; but the misery and oppression of the most numerous and most useful class of citizens has been strongly pictured by many late writers. In addition to the accounts given in some of the late papers, I beg leave to communicate one from a late publication on agriculture. Mr. Marshall, in his "Midland counties," Vol. 2. page 217, observes, "It having always appeared to me incomprehensible, how a common farm labourer, who, perhaps, does not earn more than six or seven shillings a week, rears a large family, as many a one does without any assistance,—I desired old George Barwell, who has brought up five or six sons and daughters, to clear up the mystery—he acknowledged, that he has frequently been hard put to it. He has sometimes *are* had bread for his children: not a morsel for himself: having often made a dinner of *raw hog peas*." Again, p. 364, "I lately sold a parcel of cord wood to a Jersey comber, who employed a poor old man to burn it for him, on the spot, at eight pence a quarter, and board: which, however, did not cost him much. The poor devil had sometimes bread, and sometimes cheese, and sometimes neither, with seldom any thing but water to drink. His lodging cost him nothing. He built himself a hut with slabs and sods, a cone seven feet wide at the base, on the inside, and four feet high in the centre. The floor divided by a long log: one side littered with straw, for a lodging room: the other furnished with a loose log, as a sitting room."

Philadelphia, July 13, 1792.

AMERICAN CATALOGUE.

PHILADELPHIA.

| | Dols. cts. |
|--|------------|
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| 2. <i>Currie's account of the diseases of America</i> , Dobson, | 2. |
| 3. <i>American encyclopedia</i> , 6 vols. Dobson, | 30. |
| 4. <i>Beauties of the creation</i> , 12mo. Young, | .82 |
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| 34. <i>Bible in royal quarto</i> . Thomas. | 6. |
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NEWHAVEN.

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| 36. <i>The chorister's companion</i> . Jocelyn. | 1.8 |
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Those in Italic are American productions.
Those with an asterisk are pamphlets.